



LECTURES

UPON

PORTIONS OF HISTORY,

WITH

HISTORICAL OUTLINES

FOR THE USE OF SCHOOLS,

COMPILED FROM THE PRINTED CHARTS AND

UNPUBLISHED MANUSCRIPTS

OF THE LATE

✓
HENRY BOSTWICK,

LECTURER ON HISTORY IN THE CITY OF NEW-YORK.

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P R E F A C E .

IN the accompanying volume the reader is presented with *Three Historical Lectures*, prepared for the press by the late HENRY BOSTWICK, for many years an eminent lecturer on History in the city of New-York. Strongly marked by the accurate thought and spirited expression which characterized Mr. Bostwick's style, they present a rapid and singularly original outline of History from the creation of the world to the time of Philip of Macedon, intended as the introduction to an extensive series which the author unhappily did not live to complete. He died in the city of New-York, deeply lamented by his numerous pupils and friends, June, 1836, in the 49th year of his age.

These lectures are followed by

1. An Epitome of Ancient Geography.
2. *An Outline of History* from the creation to 3500 A. M.
3. A continuation of the *Outline* from 3500 to the time of Augustus.
4. A Chronological Index of the most important events from A. M. 3250 to 4004.
5. A further continuation of the *Outline*, &c., to the reign of Charlemagne, A. D. 800.
6. A Chronological Index from the birth of Christ to the reign of Charlemagne.

7. *Fragments of History* of Spain, Gaul, Italy, after the time of Charlemagne.

8. A Table of European Sovereigns from 800 to the present time.

This portion of the volume is a compilation in part from Mr. Bostwick's printed historical charts, and in part from notes of his *unwritten* lectures, taken by his pupils.

The Appendix contains a *Synchronistic Table* of events of ancient history ; a table of ancient kings, fabulous and historical, with the *Roman emperors divided into classes* ; a *Brief Sketch* of the *Schools of Philosophy* among the Greeks ; with an account of the *Origin* and *Division* of the Hellenic races ; the whole designed to accompany and illustrate Mr. Bostwick's Historical Atlas for the use of classes and schools.

Two Charts have been superadded, the first comprehending a combination of HISTORY AND CHRONOLOGY, corresponding with Chart No. 1, and the second with Chart No. 5, of Mr. Bostwick's Atlas.

OUTLINE OF HISTORY,

FROM THE

Creation of the World to the time of Philip of Macedon,

IN THREE LECTURES.

LECTURE I.

THE history of the early ages of the world is involved in the gloom of uncertainty, that necessarily results from the infancy and ignorance of nations, when letters are unknown, and events pass unrecorded. The sacred annals have preserved from oblivion the transactions of one small nation, the Hebrews, with slight and occasional notices of the bordering States; but even these annals, adequate, indeed, to their grand design, fail, in a thousand particulars, to satisfy our busy curiosity. We are left in irretrievable perplexity in attempting to adjust the doubtful points of chronology.

In this dilemma, since we must not overlook such a lapse of centuries, we have to resort to those faint gleams of light, which barely redeem us from total darkness; and we must often submit to reiterate the mere conjectures of others, instead of delivering the convictions of our own minds. Curiosity expects it, and deference for others authorizes it.

Adopting the received chronology, a period of four thousand and four years fills the dreary interval from the creation to the birth of Christ; and, excepting the last five hundred years of this period, profane history is either silent or doubtful for all the rest.

A cloud of uncertainty obscures the most important transactions; and even where the leading events can be traced, the detail only presents a field for vague conjecture, and absurd romance.

The first two thousand years defy the research of the profane historian, and expose his curiosity to ridicule. From the Mosaic account, admitting the Hebrew copy, Adam, commencing with the world, measures off 930 years of the first thousand. From the death of Adam, in 930, one hundred and twenty-six years carry us down to the birth of Noah, in 1056, whose protracted years, descending to 2006, roll us through the second thousand years, marked only by two great events, the flood in 1656, and the dispersion, one hundred years after the flood in 1756. The events of the Flood, when Noah was six hundred years old, are distinctly recorded; but the scriptural, as well as profane accounts, shed but a faint glimmering light on the particulars of the Dispersion in 1756.

A majority of critics agree in fixing the scene of man's creation in Chaldea, on the Euphrates: but, since the sacred volume has not decided, we may safely abandon the inquiry to the vain ambition of men, who, disdaining the road that lies open to truth, delight to roam in the regions of novelty and conjecture. The example of others, and many passages in Scripture, warrant our assuming Chaldea as the centre from which the scattering sons of Noah, and perhaps that patriarch himself, were dispersed after the confusion of tongues, into different regions and climes, to people the unknown countries of the earth.

In this important migration, we have distinct authority, in the sacred books, to follow Ham and his *posterity* into Arabia, Canaan, and Egypt. The name of Canaan, the accursed son of Ham, was communicated to the little country where his eleven sons settled,—the progenitors of eleven Canaanitish tribes; (see chart.) Three centuries (327 years) after the Dispersion, the appearance of Abraham in this land, and the promise of God to him, fixed upon it the name of "Promised Land." The conquest of the land by Abraham's descendants, the Israelites, gave it the name of Israel, while it transferred the whole country from the posterity of Ham to the posterity of Shem, from whom Abraham descended, the chosen father of a peculiar people.

With respect to Japhet, we must be content to despatch him into Asia Minor and Europe, and adopt him as the father of the early nations dispersed through those countries, without entangling our narrative with minute genealogy, or putting credulity to the severe test of etymological refinement.

Shem, as the particular ancestor of Abraham, stands, of course, in the patriarchal line, and claims more attention: we distribute his sons between those of Ham and Japhet, through a succession of states, reaching from the Levant, indefinitely into the East. Aram gave his name to the little country since called Syria, north of Canaan, and to Padan-Aram, distinguished from this,—another country between the Euphrates and Tigris, since called Mesopotamia,—Ashur is now Assyria; Elam is Persia; and Shinaar, or Chaldea, seems to have derived its inhabitants from Arphaxad, without assuming his name. This last son of Shem was the ancestor of Abraham, and Abraham is expressly said to have come from Chaldea.

A thousand years, (from 2000 to 3000,) commences with the birth of Abraham, in 2008; and its close witnesses Solomon arrayed in all his glory, swaying the sceptre of Israel, and the nations conquered by David. Moses flourishes; and the Grecian States were founded half way between Abraham and Solomon, about 2500. The peaceful residence of Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob, among the Canaanites, from 2083 to 2298, a period of two hundred and fifteen years, added to the residence in Egypt of the same number of years, makes the sum of 430, from the calling to the Exodus, or deliverance from Egypt by Moses, in 2513. Moses had lived forty years in Egypt at the court of Pharaoh, forty years with his father-in-law Jethro, in Midian, when he commenced his journey through the wilderness, which lasted another forty years. He died on the east side of the Jordan, having conquered the country on that side, and Joshua crossed the Jordan, and completed the conquest of Canaan.

The country took the name of Israel, being divided into twelve tribes, corresponding to the number of Jacob's sons. No particular form of government was instituted; the laws of Moses established at Sinai were in force, and the authority of the priests was respected. Extraordinary circumstances raised up extraordinary personages to deliver the nation from the bondage and servitude into which they were frequently reduced by the idolatrous nations around them. These extraordinary persons were styled Judges; their authority usually expired with the occasion that called it forth. From the historical book called Judges, we derive our imperfect knowledge of this loose and disorderly period of more than three hundred and fifty years, from Joshua to Saul, the first king of Israel, whose reign is computed to have commenced in 2909.

The idolatry of the neighbouring tribes corrupted the children of Israel; discord and degeneracy among themselves exposed them to the snares of their enemies, and they often groaned in cruel bondage. The Philistines on the south-west, sprung from Misraim, a son of Ham, who settled in Egypt. The Syrians, or Aramites, on the north, descended from Aram, a son of Shem. Six other surrounding tribes branched from the same stock with Abraham, and, of course, arose after his removal into this land. The Moabites and Ammonites from Lot; the Ishmaelites and Midianites from Abraham directly; the Edomites and Amalekites from Esau, the grandson of Abraham.

Saul, the first king of Israel, was unable to remedy the disorders and distress into which the transgressions of his countrymen had plunged them. The sceptre that fell from his feeble hands, passed into those of his illustrious rival and successor, David. In a busy reign of forty years, that great and warlike monarch introduced order into the government, established commerce, subdued the tribes that had so often opposed Israel, and erected a splendid monarchy. The reign of his son, Solomon, was peaceful and splendid; commerce still flourished, and the most magnificent structure arose to adorn his capital. But the glory of Israel expired with the son of David, in 3029; discord and dismemberment rent the kingdom, and disgraced the reign of Rehoboam, the son of Solomon. Desolation and captivity will follow; but we must turn from the disgusting picture, to trace the origin and revolutions of other States.

The early origin of the Egyptian monarchy is attested by the Jewish annals; a remote and fabulous antiquity is the vain boast of Egyptian priests. We can imagine every thing for early ages; nothing can be denied; nothing can be authenticated. Wisdom is silent; but the prerogatives of loquacious folly may be indulged without harm. We need not wage war against the random speculations about unsearchable things, merely because we choose to decline them. Let us be employed about known realities; freely resign to others the honour of guessing, precisely, when each early throne was established, and of divining the names of a race of monarchs, their joys, their griefs, their glories, their disgraces, their conquests, and their overthrows. The curiosity must be ardent in pursuit, that is not sobered by reading and research. Let it rage.

Independent of Jewish testimony, the proud structures of Egypt are

monuments of time and labour, as they are of the absurd ambition of kings, and the slavish stupidity of their people. There is no doubt that the country was early populous. Rich in soil and spontaneous resources, men could not fail to multiply. The increase of the Israelites during the bondage, exceeds the bounds of imagination. Many events must have happened in such a country; but who now can reclaim such events from the oblivion to which the ignorance of the age consigned them. Yet many authors have pursued the subject, and unfolded many wonders with an air of confidence, and we need not choose to deprive them of their pleasure or their laurels.

Shall we let Semiramis sleep? the conquering heroine of those remote ages, the mighty monarch of Assyria? It is doubtful whether her first conquest was over her husband or her son. After that, her biographers seem to think that her conquests knew no bounds. The deserts, rivers, mountains of the distant east, could not withstand her invading hosts. Where she found armies to lead forth, or people to conquer, could not be easily determined, as her time is fixed before that of Abraham, who conquered four eastern kings with four hundred men; and one of these kings must have been a successor of Semiramis. The people seem to have been thinly scattered over the face of the earth, till long after the time of Abraham; and it is obvious from the Jewish records, that no great eastern monarchy could have existed till after the time of Solomon. The conclusion is, that from Abraham to Solomon, men were emigrating, and forming new settlements and petty kingdoms, but that no great eastern monarchy yet existed.

The foundation of Rome was laid in a later period, 3250; but the Grecian States rise in the days of Abraham, Isaac, Jacob, Joseph, Moses. In their days the Grecian gods probably lived or reigned on earth: their offspring were too numerous to accompany their divine parents to their celestial abodes; but on earth, the descendants of Jupiter, Mars, Vulcan, Venus, with the inferior lustre of demigods, heroes, kings, &c., enjoyed and indulged the prerogatives due to their illustrious pedigree.

From Moses to David, Israel, under its Judges, presents a gloomy picture of brutal manners, and human depravity. The same age in Greece, while it shocks us with the most horrid exhibitions of savage ferocity, and licentious pleasure, at the same time confounds our imaginations with the most brilliant displays of wild and heroic adventures, that the frantic rage of ambition could suggest to disordered minds. The Grecian heroes directed their fierce attacks with equal fury against men and devouring monsters. Glory prompted, passion spurred them to the slaughter; generosity, sympathy, revenge, might often supply the motive or excuse; but no consideration could ever abate the rage of battle, or assuage the fierceness of the savage bosom.

These wild adventures come down to us in the dress of the Grecian muses, adorned with fiction engrafted upon fiction, by successive bards, whose raptures confound the calm serenity of a mind composed to suit the settled state of modern times.

We may weep or laugh at the follies of man, according to our constitutional bias or occasional mood. It is certain, that without a subject and an impulse, Homer's muse would have been silent.

We are unable to name the son of Japhet, who first crossed the narrow seas, and trod the enchanted shores of Greece. We may pretend to tell the year when the several monarchies began; but the foundation of a monarchy supposes a previous population. Perhaps the kingdom of Sicyon was erected as early as the 1915th year of the world, ninety-three years before the birth of Abraham. Who can dispute that Argos was founded in 2183, the very year of Abraham's death?

It is at least harmless to believe with the Greek writers, that the Athenian, Spartan, Theban, Trojan monarchies, commenced in the time of Moses, about 2500.

We need not quarrel with the fifty daughters of Danaus, married to the fifty sons of his brother Egyptus; and it would be useless to lament the fate of forty-nine, out of the fifty bridegrooms sacrificed by their brides, since one was spared to propagate the royal line.

The throne of Argos, founded 2183, was usurped in the time of Moses, by this same Danaus, an emigrant from Egypt, from whom sprang Perseus and Hercules. Cecrops, another Egyptian emigrant, was the founder of Athens. The Phenician Cadmus, in pursuit of his sister Europa, if you please, built Thebes, in Bœotia, and perhaps introduced into Greece an alphabet, before unknown to the savage nations.

The blaze of *glory* and *splendour* that broke out in Greece in a later period, and illumined the two centuries, from 3500 to 3700, arouses our ardent curiosity to investigate their early history, and explore the various causes that were then conspiring to their future lustre. Bold fictions, or ridiculous conceits, may satisfy credulity; but they disgust the sober inquirer, who demands well-attested facts, and probable conclusions. Herodotus, the first profane historian, began to write when the glory of Greece was nearly at its summit. When he records the events that passed before him, he commands our implicit belief. When he relates the tales of antiquity, painfully collected in his travels and researches, we scrutinize, and adopt only what is probable. In investigations of this nature, we ought to ascertain, as soon as possible, what lies hidden from human research, and direct our faithful aim to the discovery of useful and probable facts. This rigid principle rejects at once, a cumbrous mass of fiction and folly, and advances us directly forward in our pursuit. Let us not be understood as disparaging the reading of fiction, because the creeds and superstitions of mankind form a necessary branch of study, and make a part of history. It is only a rigid criterion that we recommend, by which, while we read, we can separate truth from falsehood or folly.

That Greece was peopled by emigrants from Asia, seems to be universally conceded; the exact time is unknown and unimportant. We care not whether whole colonies passed over at different times, or whether there was a constant tide of emigration. The emigration of Danaus, Cecrops, and Cadmus, in the time of Moses, presents an inquiry of more importance, as they are said to have imported with them into Greece, the arts, institutions, and superstitions of Egypt and Phenicia; but the tale is incumbered with fiction, and perplexed with difficulties. As Greece was a country that offered great allurements to strangers, the most sober conclusion seems to be, that emigration flowed to it from Asia unceasingly, till the different communities were filled, the national character formed, and national jealousies imbibed. Some foreign su-

perstitutions may have blended with their own; but we may venture to advance the opinion that the whole structure of Grecian mythology was conceived and reared in Greece, in the face of all the vague speculations of writers who would derive it from Egypt and Asia. The Grecian character, as well as Grecian transactions, arose, naturally, from the enterprise of emigrants, the constant intercourse of strangers, the facilities that sea and land offered for such intercourse, soil, climate, face of the country, &c.; and their fiction naturally sprung from their ardent character, and wild adventures.

From the time of Cadmus, 2500 to 3000, we have the Calydonian chase, Argonautic expedition, Theban wars, expulsion of the Heraclidæ, or race of Hercules, from the Peloponnesus, by the race of Pelops; the Trojan war, the recovery of the Peloponnesus by the Heraclidæ, the migration of Æolian, Dorian, and Ionian Greeks into Asia Minor, and the abolition of monarchy in many States of Greece. To pronounce all these adventures mere fiction, is as absurd as it is difficult to separate truth from embellishment. The Argonautic expedition from Greece to Colchis, is an enigma, to exercise the sagacity of men who can find no other employment. The Calydonian chase terminated in the tragic death of a furious wild boar, sent by the gods to ravage Ætolia, and chased by all the princes of the age, affording a sublime theme for heroic song. The two Theban wars signify the mutual slaughter of Theban and Argive heroes, breathing vengeance for mutual injuries; and happily, the muses have perpetuated the bloody scenes. The expulsion of the Heraclidæ descended from Danaus and Perseus, was, indeed, a lamentable injustice done to that illustrious race, to be expiated afterwards by the descendants of Pelops, the guilty offenders. Agamemnon, king of Argos, Menelaus, king of Sparta, in right of queen Helen,—these were of the race of Pelops, heroes of the Trojan war. Paris, son of Priam, king of Troy, ought to have been ashamed to abuse the hospitality of Menelaus, by bearing off in triumph the willing spouse of the Spartan king. This injury was enough to kindle the flame of war, and provoke a wasting siege of ten years, that laid proud Troy in smoking ruins. The closing scene of this tragedy occurred in 2820.

At length, just eighty years later, in 2900, the exiled Heraclidæ, after countless misadventures, poured into the Peloponnesus at different points, accompanied by their Dorian allies, in superior numbers, and recovered their ancient thrones and hereditary territories. Their triumphant return was fruitful in events, commotions, and emigrations, which we should mark with careful attention. From this time the Doric population and character prevailed in the Peloponnesus, and the descendants of Hercules swayed the sceptre, while those who fled formed new intermixtures, and new colonies, of stupendous fame. The Achæians, oppressed by the invading host, fell upon the Ionians, their neighbours, and drove them to seek new settlements. The Athenians received the fugitives in such numbers, that the Ionian character and dialect prevailed. About thirty years later, 2930, Codrus, the last king of Athens, following the suggestion of an oracle, rushed into battle, and sought death, to save his country from the fierce attack of the Heraclidæ, who, not satisfied with the recovery of the Peloponnesus, aimed to subdue their neighbours. With Codrus, monarchy ended at Athens;

the office of hereditary archon was instituted in favour of one of his sons; the others withdrew in disgust, and drawing many others with them, passed over into Asia Minor, and founded an Ionian nation. The Æolians had already seated themselves further north, on the same coast; and not far from the same time, some wandering Dorians occupied the coast south of the Ionians.

To recapitulate these important events. The Achæians dispossessed the Ionians, and remained in the Peloponnesus, where we shall see them in the last stage of Greece, then, for the first time, the leading power, making the last stand against the Romans. The banished Ionians, received at Athens, impart their character and language. On the death of Codrus, a portion of them settle in Asia Minor, where they, as well as the Æolians and Dorians, after many vicissitudes, will become a numerous, flourishing, and magnificent people. From this time, an impulse of busy enterprise diffused the Grecian name and nation throughout every coast and island of the Mediterranean. From this time we no longer estimate the greatness of Greece by the narrow limits that the name implies.

For five hundred years after 3000, Greece is not inactive; and yet we say the whole five hundred years is nothing but preparation and approach to the splendid scene which bursts forth in 3500.

We stand at 3000, and take a rapid review of five hundred years, a period that affords only glimmering light; but it is the dawn of a bright day. For half the period before us, that is, for two hundred and fifty years after 3000, the Greeks claim but a small share of our notice. In this interval, emigration continues, and some of the States new model their government and laws. Aristocratic or democratic institutions are substituted for monarchy in almost every State except Sparta. In that celebrated city reigned jointly, two kings of the race of Hercules. Lycurgus, of the younger branch, established his famous code of laws, the most odious and pernicious system ever devised by man, yet the theme of endless, and almost unqualified praise, from the days of Herodotus to our own time.

Temperance in eating and drinking, and severity of manners, are poor apologies for virtue, when they are cultivated for purposes of lawless ambition. We must admire the health and hardihood that are the fruits of useful industry; but the labour of the Spartans was in the field of blood and battle, or in the painful exercise that prepared them to brave death for the lust of dominion. Unhappy captives reduced to wretched slavery, performed those necessary labours in the field, and in the household, which their Spartan lords despised. We all admit that intemperate luxury was banished from Sparta; so was every *liberal* art, and every liberal thought. Who can name a Spartan poet, philosopher, orator, historian, or artist? But we are told that Spartans loved their country; that is a vulgar merit, common to all mankind. But how did they treat their neighbours? Let the poor Messenians, and all the States of Greece give the reply.

3228 is the vulgar era of the Olympic games. Their real origin is concealed in the mist of antiquity. We know not the time of their commencement, nor at what particular periods they were modified, to embrace new objects. We do know that they were an institution formed in a barbarous age, and rude in its nature; we know, also, that

the contagious example spread to every state, and almost every city of Greece. The effects of these games on the Grecian morals, manners, and characters, are worthy of philosophic attention. Intercourse, emulation, opportunity and success, were the fruits realized. Humanity laments the wild barbarity of some of the exercises, and the ridiculous folly of others; but sense and reason accept the final good, and acquiesce in the shame from which no barbarous age was ever exempt. The Grecian games did not, like Spartan laws, entirely subject the soul to the body, but rather cultivated the powers of both.

The precise age of Homer and Hesiod, is easily fixed by men who boldly resolve to decide every thing. Homer lived after the Trojan war, in 2820, perhaps three hundred years after, in 3120. He lived so long before the time of Herodotus, that neither the age in which he lived, nor the island or coast which gave him birth, could then be ascertained. Here common minds must rest, and be satisfied. We need not try to suppress our admiring wonder at the appearance of such a man, in such an age. Poetic inspiration would naturally flow from the ardour, enterprise, and commotion exhibited around; but the design of the poem, the perfection and purity of style, the first ever produced, yet a model for all succeeding ages,—the early period, between 3000 and 3150,—all these considerations exercise the mind with prodigious astonishment.

The successors of Solomon for this same two hundred and fifty years, with some illustrious exceptions, exhibited a sad picture of degeneracy, which the fidelity of the sacred narrative has painted for our admonition and instruction. The wisdom of Solomon preserved entire the monarchy which the valour of David had established. Rehoboam, the son of Solomon, provoked a rebellion which rent his kingdom. After this fatal mischief, the line of David was confined to the southern of the Jewish tribes; and this limited kingdom bore the name of Judah, the principal tribe, from which the royal line had sprung, and the Messiah was to be derived. Israel, which was before the name of the whole kingdom, was from that time appropriated to the northern and eastern tribes that revolted. The kings of Israel took the lead in wicked and idolatrous practices; but Judah was not far behind in adopting or imitating the most absurd and abominable customs of their idolatrous neighbours. To the north, the kings of Syria recovered and abused the independent power which David and Solomon knew how to curb, or crush. The nations conquered by David breathed continual sedition, and often set the kings of Judah and Israel at defiance. Behold the elements of perpetual discord, and wasting wars. Barbarians all—fierce, corrupt, hostile: in nothing united but in vicious propensities, and lawless indulgence. Jezebel, a princess of Tyre, married Ahab, one of the kings of Israel, and inundated the land with her priests and gods. Her daughter, Athaliah, married Jehoram, king of Judah, and imported her mother's mischiefs into that kingdom. It was in vain that now and then a good king arose in Judah, (not *one* in Israel,) to cleanse the polluted altars, and purify the defiled temple. Headlong successors would urge on the destiny of a nation, eagerly rushing into ruin and captivity. The royal families of Israel were frequently swept off by a bold stroke of treason and usur-

pation; five reigned of one family; four of another; of several dynasties, only three; and besides these, several usurpers were succeeded by other usurpers. It was different in Judah, where the line of David continued unbroken till the destruction of the kingdom.

Israel and Syria were finally desolated by the armies of Nineveh, and the captive people distributed into the eastern cities in 3283. This event is called the first captivity. The captivity of Judah, or second captivity, took place more than a century later. These events call for the consideration of the ancient kingdoms of Nineveh and Babylon, so celebrated in history, sacred and profane; so imperfectly known to those who wait for authority and evidence; so well understood by all who are fond of the marvellous. Sacred and profane history attest the existence of those ancient cities. We have direct authority for the destruction of Nineveh by a king of Babylon, perhaps about the year 3379. We know that Babylon long after existed, and gradually sunk into ruin. All the wonders that are related of both, before the year 3250, are the mere creatures of wonder-searching brains. The Jewish annals are silent till 3250. Fiction is fluent 1300 years earlier. If an immense monarchy all that time bordered on the Jewish, and overshadowed it, we derive not a word of it from the Jews themselves. Of the famed Semiramis, before the time of Abraham, we have already spoken. Sardanapalus was 1200 later—about 3200. We certainly could not refuse to pity the cruel fate of that misguided monarch; but the last catastrophe is the only point in which his biographers can agree, except that Nineveh was his capital. Whether Babylon, or Media, or Persia, or Armenia, belonged to his domains, is matter of contradiction and doubt, in which every man must form his opinion without record or evidence to guide. The twelve hundred years from Semiramis to Sardanapalus, is the term and duration of that prodigy of fiction, called the First, or the Ancient Assyrian Empire. About 3250, we enter upon the period of the Second Assyrian Empire, less interesting than the first, because more known and more real; yet here again all is doubtful, except what we gain from the sacred writers, whose province only required them to relate the transactions that passed between their own people and the kings of Nineveh or Assyria. The two captivities, first of Israel, in 2383, second of Judah, in 3416, have been already mentioned. Tiglath-Pileser, and Shalmanazar, are the names of the two monarchs of Nineveh or Assyria, who began and completed the captivity of Syria and Israel, in 3283. The treasures of the holy temple were profanely lavished by wicked Ahaz, king of Judah, to purchase the assistance of Tiglath-Pileser against the kings of Israel and Syria, who had invaded Judah with immense armies, and reduced the kingdom to the brink of destruction. Ahaz had the satisfaction to see his enemies afflicted with greater calamities than they had so wantonly brought upon him. The Syrians, and all the tribes of Israel, except Ephraim and Manasseh, were carried to Nineveh and other eastern cities. Hezekiah, son of Ahaz, king of Judah, did not imitate his father's weakness or impiety, in purchasing foreign assistance; but he saw the first captivity completed by the ruin of Samaria, and the two remaining tribes of Israel. This was the age in which Isaiah lived and prophesied.

Before the second captivity, proud Nineveh was prostrate in ruin, and Babylon had become the seat of empire, as some say, in 3379; but the chronology cannot be ascertained within many years; and the details of this event can only be furnished by fabulists, whose liberal treasures are always at our service. Were Media and Persia subject to the kings of Nineveh? Did they assist the king or governor of Babylon in the enterprise against Nineveh? All is conjecture; all is contradiction. Evidence merely warrants our saying, that kings reigning at Babylon, reigned also over the same territories that were subject to the kings of Nineveh at its destruction. Then commenced the Babylonish, or Third Assyrian Empire. The first, or most ancient Assyrian empire, a prodigious fiction, lasted twelve hundred years, from Semiramis to Tiglath-Pileser, from 2000 to 3250. The second Assyrian empire, indifferently known, lasted little more than a century; and the Third Assyrian Empire is the Babylonish Empire. Nabopolasser was the founder; Nebuchadnezzar was his son, and the author of the second captivity. He began to reign 3400; he took Daniel two years before, acting then as the general of his father, Nabopolasser, in the siege of Jerusalem. Ezekiel was taken eight years later than Daniel, 3406; Jerusalem, and the temple destroyed, and the people of Judah carried captive 3416. This completes the second captivity. Daniel and Ezekiel, who were carried to Babylon, and Jeremiah, who was taken to Egypt, were the prophets of this day. Nebuchadnezzar also destroyed Tyre, after a siege of thirteen years, and then overran Egypt. This monarch is said to have enlarged and embellished Babylon. We know nothing of him except from Holy Writ; of his successors we know still less. They seem to have been embroiled with the kings of Media; but no two historians can tell the same story of their wars. Cyrus, the Persian arose, long before foretold by Isaiah. His father was Cambyzes; whether king or governor of Persia, we know not. His mother was Mandane, daughter of Astyages, king of Media. Cyaxares, son and successor of Astyages, was, of course, the uncle of Cyrus. These personages have been made the subjects of moral and pathetic tales, by Herodotus, Xenophon, &c., but they all contradict one another; none had the light of evidence, and we are reduced to be satisfied with the simple and certain truth, that Cyrus, the Persian, conquered immense territories, and at last took Babylon by stratagem, and founded the Persian empire. Whether Cyrus waged war against the Assyrian provinces in alliance with his grandfather and uncle, kings of Media, or whether he first conquered them, and afterwards led his forces against the Assyrians, must be decided by somebody who has a better opportunity to investigate the truth than Herodotus and Xenophon, who give these contradictory stories. It is pretty certain that Cyrus conquered Cræsus, king of Lydia, in 3456, and that he took Babylon in 3466. The kingdom of Lydia then embraced nearly the whole of Asia Minor, and Cræsus, its king, fell a sacrifice to the resentment of Cyrus, for having entered into an alliance with the king of Babylon. The numerous and flourishing Greek cities on the coast of Asia Minor, of the Æolian, Ionian, and Dorian names, had been subjected to the kingdom of Lydia, and they now struggled in vain to escape the yoke of Cyrus. They submitted to the Persian king, and

will soon be found acting a conspicuous part in the grand transactions between Greece and Persia.

Nineveh was the first seat of eastern despotism : its destruction transferred the pre-eminence to Babylon. Cyrus reduced Babylon to a provincial and dependent city, and Susa becomes and remains for two hundred years the capital of the Persian empire.

The captive, Daniel, found favour with Cyrus, who permitted the Jews to return to their own country, and rebuild Jerusalem and the temple. Many Jews, particularly of the first captivity, chose to remain in the eastern cities, where they long enjoyed distinguished privileges, and made a considerable proportion of eastern population. Those who returned to Jerusalem experienced various delays and difficulties in rebuilding their temple and walls. The Samaritans, an inveterate race, who had been transplanted into the tribes from the east, to repopulate the country after the first captivity, having embraced the Jewish religion, claimed to participate in the privileges of the temple, to the expense of which they had to contribute by the decree of Cyrus. Being disdainfully rejected by the Jews as a spurious race, they carried their clamor and opposition to a degree of frantic rage, which, for twenty years baffled and retarded the labours of the Jews; and in this they were countenanced by the decrees of Cambyses, son of Cyrus, and Smerdis, the usurper. At length Darius Hystaspes, third king of Persia, effectually exerted his power in behalf of the temple and city, and they arose with much of their former splendour and magnificence. From that time, they received continual additions and improvements, till their total destruction by Titus, the Roman emperor, six hundred years after,—seventy years after the birth of Christ.

During the captivity, the common people among the Jews lost their own language, and spoke only that of the Chaldeans; so that, from their restoration, the Hebrew was only cultivated and understood by the Rabbis. The Hebrew copy of the Bible was still read in the synagogues, but an interpreter was always employed to render every verse, as soon as read in Hebrew, into Chaldee.

The line of David enjoyed only titular honours, after the captivity, without real power. A prince of that line, with the High Priest, returned at the head of the Jews to Jerusalem; but the restored Jews were subject to the Persian empire; and whatever authority they were allowed to enjoy was engrossed by priests and rabbis; the prince sunk into obscurity and insignificance. Ezra and Nehemiah were the conspicuous prophets of the second temple. After them, prophets and sacred historians cease their functions, and about the same time Herodotus, the first profane historian, begins to write.

Cyrus had erected an immense monarchy, extending from India to the Grecian seas. His son and successor, Cambyses, a frantic despot, marched into Egypt, conquered the whole country, and added it to the Persian empire. He sacrificed immense armies, in trying to conquer the burning deserts of Lybia and Ethiopia: he threatened Carthage; but while he breathed vengeance and fury equally against foreigners and his own unhappy subjects, a usurper, by the name of Smerdis, occupied his throne at Susa, under the assumed character of his brother. Death arrested him as he was setting out to return to his capital

and punish the usurper. After seven months, the imposture was detected, and Darius Hystaspes reigned the third lawful king of Persia, in 3483. Before 3500, he conquered Thrace, in Europe; and India, in the East. His celebrated wars with Greece, begin in 3500 precisely, and that is the point of time at which authentic history begins.

The history of Egypt is known from the time it became a part of the Persian empire. Before that time, and after Solomon, we can ascertain but little, except a few expeditions into Israel, and the irruption of Nebuchadnezzar into Egypt. Chronologers must fix the time of Sesostris within five hundred years before we can follow him all over the world with his conquering armies.

The affairs of Greece have been brought down to 3250, the era of the foundation of Rome, and of the second Assyrian empire. From 3250 to 3500, colonization goes on, and the Grecian nations gradually assume a more calm and settled condition. Two ferocious wars, called first and second Messenian wars, subjected the Messenian state and nation to the Spartans. The result of these wars gave the Spartans a complete ascendancy in the Peloponnesus. The third Messenian war lies much later. Argos was governed by an aristocracy. Corinth changed from monarchy to aristocracy, and from that again to monarchy, and from that again to aristocracy. We have seen the abolition of monarchy at Athens, 2930, succeeded by hereditary archons. The archons became decennial, or for ten years, about 3250, and finally annual, about 3320. The archon, Solon, is famous among the ancient lawgivers. He appears at Athens, about 3430, three hundred years later than Lycurgus, at Sparta. His laws were silly enough, but they did not, like those of Lycurgus, prefer the body to the soul; they left free scope to intellectual energy. He was one of the seven wise men. Their wisdom and their maxims have been the theme of praise. Pity that it was all folly. However, it answers for talk. In the face and eyes of Solon, Pisistratus, an artful demagogue, usurped sovereign power at Athens. The history of his sons connects with important events, not now to be considered. A succession of elegant Greek poets flourished in this age; Pythagoras, and others, called philosophers, appear. They had talents, but their philosophy was such as we should expect from the age.

LECTURE II.

A PRECEDING Lecture has hurried us over thirty-five centuries; from the creation to the year of the world 3500;—a long interval, presenting always a gloomy stillness, or savage scenes of wild commotion. Throughout, the picture is shaded with the darkness of primitive ignorance, or faintly illuminated by a few rays of scattered light. At the close of this dreary lapse, the change to us is instantaneous; a memorable era commences; we seem to pass suddenly from the shades

of night to meridian brightness. The arms of Cyrus had consolidated the East into one stupendous monarchy, in 3466. The frantic ambition of his son, Cambyzes; the ignoble, but momentary reign of the usurper, Smerdis, clouded, for awhile, the eastern aspect; but even Cambyzes stretched the Persian sceptre over the rich vales of the Nile, and he magnificent cities of Egypt. Darius soon succeeded; Thrace and India swelled the list of provinces, and poured their treasures into the palaces of Susa. The ambition of that monarch clashed with the liberties of Greece. Victorious before, baffled now, his name still gains lustre or renown from the unfortunate encounter.

The acquisition of Thrace had destroyed the natural barrier between the Persian domains and the Grecian States, and planted the seeds of future discord. The memorable conflict was hastened on by the sullen submission, and at length the open revolt of the Greeks of Asia Minor, assisted by their kindred race of Athens. In that city the spirit of liberty had recently triumphed over its tyrants, the sons of Pisistratus. A daring blow had despatched Hipparchus; a general revolt drove Hippias, the other, into exile, to the court of Darius, who cherished the complaints of the banished monarch, and resolved to cloak his own ambition under the specious pretext of espousing the common cause of injured kings. The opposite passions of men kindled into a flame that spread over the face of the earth, and dissipated the gloom of ages.

We have plunged Greece and Persia into a contest that will long endure. The era of its commencement is imposing, though less important, immediately, in other parts of the world. The expulsion of the kings of Rome, was almost simultaneous with that of the Pisistratidæ from Athens, about 3500. The downfall of a tyrant is an event always viewed with interest by mankind, though commotion, instead of calm, generally succeeds, and some new adventurer converts the disorder to his own aggrandizement, and the unhappy people behold new chains forged, new snares laid, perhaps by the very idols who struck the first blow, or led the attack against their former tyrants. In such cases, the second tyrant is usually more dangerous than the former, since the same deceit and dissimulation which associated his name with the cause of freedom, may still be successfully practised to impose upon undiscerning minds, who continue to identify their hero with the sacred cause which he has abandoned and betrayed. At Rome, the magistracy passed from the king to the patricians, a jealous aristocracy, who dreaded equally a monarch and all plebeian encroachments. The annual election of consuls flattered the expectations of every senator, and during his year the consul was invested with sufficient power to suppress ordinary tumults in the city, and meet the common exigencies of war. When unusual dangers pressed, the temporary appointment of a dictator, with absolute power, served to restore order, and insure the public safety. The rights of the people were in some measure guarded by their own annual magistrates, called tribunes of the people, who had power to arrest any public measure, though they could not propose any thing. In process of time, the privileges of the people were enlarged; but at no period was the Roman constitution well defined; the contradictory pretensions of plebeians and patricians, of consuls

and tribunes, filled the city with perpetual tumult and disorder. Nothing, however, could ever check the Roman ardour for war and conquest; enemies in the forum were friends in the field of battle; the majesty of Rome filled every mind, swelled every haughty soul, and warmed every imagination. In the eye of a Roman, conquest and dominion were the peculiar prerogatives of his sacred city. In all ages, to resist Roman arrogance was rash presumption. After the submission of a people, policy alone dictated whether the vanquished should share the full privileges of citizens, or submit to cruel slavery. If this policy was often disguised under the specious names of generosity or justice, a fair scrutiny will reject the excuse or pretence. The Roman treasury was not drained in early ages to reward the soldiers; but the license of plunder was unbounded; exemptions and privileges increased in proportion as the contributions were multiplied from vanquished territories. Successful valour seized its own reward, and the pride of conquest soothed and flattered every citizen, from the highest to the lowest degree.

For the two hundred and fifty years now before us, while we see Greece in its meridian splendour, Rome is still confined to the wars and conquests of Italy. For the next succeeding two hundred and fifty years, from 3750 to 4000, we shall see Rome striding over every sea, and embracing Greece, Asia, Egypt, and Africa, in its dominions. We now take our leave of Rome for two hundred and fifty years.

We left Greece and Persia in the commencement of their celebrated struggle, 3500. The nature of the war laid the first scene in Asia Minor, where the Ionian Greeks, inadequately assisted by the distant Athenians, after a brave resistance of six years, were compelled to submit again to their haughty and indignant masters. Darius Hystaspes, elated with former success, now resolved to carry his victorious arms over the *Ægean* sea, and subject all Greece to his imperial sway. The Athenians had given him cause of complaint, by assisting their revolted brethren. Hippias, the exiled son of Pisistratus, urged every topic; and lust of dominion closed the monarch's eyes to all considerations of justice or prudence. One blow from a mighty realm seemed enough to crush a little state; but a fleet and army perished in Thrace, and on its coast, the one a victim to the tempests, and the other to sudden surprise from a barbarian host. New preparations arrayed a formidable host for a new invasion. Avoiding the stormy coasts, and fierce barbarians of Thrace, his fleet and transports deliberately traversed the *Ægean* sea and after subduing the islands that lay in the way, reached the coast of Attica. 110,000 Persians, poured forth into the plains of Marathon,—a name often pronounced with swelling pomposity by boys, pedants and politicians,—10,000 Athenians, advantageously posted, and skilfully commanded, bravely withstood the Persian onset, broke the ranks, turned the wings, routed, pursued, and slaughtered. Flight favoured a few, who, in wild panic, began in better season, to seek the fleet; but that refuge was soon cut off; the license of victory gave free career to the havoc of avenging slaughter, and the sounding name of Marathon, long served to rouse, rally, and urge on the Greeks to certain victory.

The glorious battle of Marathon took place in 3515, ten years after

the suppression of the Ionian revolt by Darius; ten years before the entrance of Xerxes into Greece. Darius died, and Herodotus was born in the year 3520. This Darius was the third lawful king of Persia—Cyrus, Cambyses, Darius. From his death, in 3520, eighty years more were occupied by the successive reigns of Xerxes, Artaxerxes, Darius Second, or Nothus—20, 40, 20. Before his death, Darius Hystaspes had strained the nerves and sinews of his royal and imperial might to collect a force, and aim a blow that would mock the hope of resistance, and efface the stigma of his former defeat.

The revolt of Egypt, just before his death, delayed and divided his noisy expedition. He left his son Xerxes to inherit his preparations, his embarrassments, and his resentments. The prudence of the son declined the contest with Greece, till his undivided strength had crushed the revolt in Egypt. New preparations postponed the doubtful trial, till the fifth year of his reign, 3525. The idea of trampling a little community of freemen to death, instead of facing them, manfully, in equal combat, was natural to the proud lord of Persia, stung with the fresh recollections of the field of Marathon. The numerical exaggerations of Greek historians have feasted the lovers of the marvellous in all succeeding ages. An immense, but indefinite multitude, was very conveniently expressed by round millions, when muster rolls were wanting, and all descriptive terms considered inadequate. The universal expressions of wonder, satisfactorily attest the prodigious numbers of men and ships that composed the expedition. Seven days and nights would pour a countless host into Europe over a spacious bridge of boats constructed across the Hellespont; and twelve hundred vessels, besides transports, would require and contain a multitude. A train of women, slaves, cooks, comedians, courtezars, served to swell and encumber the ranks. The whole, perhaps, provokes a strain of ridicule which has not been spared by adequate pens; but it seems rational to measure the follies of Xerxes, as well as of other men, by the standard of truth and probability. We may even lash his real follies without descending to represent the enraged monarch in the idle attitude of lashing the waves of the Hellespont for dashing to pieces his bridge of boats.

A minute historian would follow the fleet and army as they slowly moved along the coast ready to co-operate in case of attack. The battle of Thermopylæ, and simultaneous encounter of the Greek and Persian fleet—the rage and purple glory of three successive days, open a noble field for the inspiration of the muse, and the expansive declamation of history. But speed is our province; a month for Xerxes is not a minute for us. If this haste would allow us to feed our amazement, and gaze at the deliberate victims of heroic ardour, we might, perhaps, catch some faint impression of the all-inspiring, all-appalling scene exhibited by the Spartan Leonidas, and his three hundred brave companions. Ten thousand men had been conducted by the Spartan king to defend the pass. For three days, Xerxes witnessed with terror and dismay the fruitless slaughter of his men; at last treason betrayed to a detachment of his army a secret pass, which led them into the rear of the Greeks. Any longer defence was hopeless; but despair produced a voluntary and animating example: Leonidas, after dismissing all his

troops but three hundred chosen and willing victims, sold his life to encourage and save Greece.

From the Hellespont to Thermopylæ, Thrace, Macedonia, and Thessaly, submitted, to increase the enemy's ranks. After the passage of Thermopylæ, the exulting victor paraded through Phocis and Bœotia into Attica, the grave of his towering hopes, the scene of his deepest humiliation. The vine and the vegetable withered under the tramp of brutal men; temples and sacred places yielded their treasures to impious and rapacious hands.

Torches and firebrands kindled a devouring element, and consumed every city, tower, or dwelling. Xerxes calmly surveyed the scene of submission and desertion, regarding the contest as already finished. His fleet had pursued that of Greece into the Saronic Gulf, and finally into the narrow strait of Salamis, a position which the Spartans wished to avoid, but which the sagacity of Themistocles sought with artful care. From eminence, the king was witness of a scene that baffled all his fond expectations, and chased him trembling out of Greece. Grecian skill and valour prevailed over superior numbers, and a mere remnant of the Persian fleet prolonged by flight the day of their certain destruction. After the glorious battle of Salamis, the decision by land was delayed about three months; the battle of Platea crowned the triumphs of Greece; very few Persians escaped. On the same day, the remnant of the fleet that escaped from Salamis, was suddenly attacked by the Athenian Xantippus, and utterly ruined.

Thus, in the compass of less than four months, the millions that followed Xerxes into Europe, perished ignobly in the battles of Thermopylæ, Artemisium, Salamis, Platea, and Mycale; and with them expired every future hope, or even thought, of conquering Greece. An edifying lesson to grasping and rapacious monarchs, if monarchs were composed of materials upon which the lessons of experience could produce any impression. From Xerxes to Buonaparte, the lust of power that has sought to domineer over all mankind, has experienced almost one uniform result of disappointment and disgrace. But that is preaching.

The island of Sicily had been colonized from Greece; and Syracuse, its capital, was a Corinthian colony. Xerxes, knowing that the Greeks of Sicily would be inclined to send aid to their brethren in Greece, entered into an alliance with the Carthaginians, by which they engaged to pass over into Sicily with three hundred thousand, while he invaded Greece with his millions. The Carthaginians had long kept a wishful eye turned on that fertile and important island, but they fared no better than Xerxes. In one moment of surprise they were all cut off by an artful stratagem of Gelon, the first tyrant, or king of Syracuse.

The principal actors in the battle of Marathon, 3515, were Miltiades, Aristides, and Themistocles. Miltiades died in prison the next year, leaving a son, the illustrious Cimon, to perpetuate the honours of his family. Aristides and Themistocles were the chief fountains of wisdom and counsel, and the souls of action during the invasion of Xerxes. Aristides returned from banishment to participate in the glory and danger of his rival. Themistocles experienced the caprice and ingratitude of his countrymen ten years after, and took refuge with

the king of Persia. Fickleness and ingratitude formed a striking trait in the licentious democracy of Athens. Brilliant talents and patriotic services invariably exposed eminent Athenians to odium, banishment, or death.

Mutual jealousy rankled in the breasts of the Spartans and Athenians. The absence of the Spartans from the field of Marathon, was excused by a religious scruple, that delayed the march of their army till the horn of the moon was filled to a requisite measure. Valour and fortune saved the state, and the Athenians engrossed the honour. The Spartans were promptly in the field in opposition to Xerxes. At Thermopylæ, the glory was theirs; and in every trying scene of the war, their valiant co-operation was essential and adequate. But they uniformly persisted in arrogating the chief command by land and sea, when it was evident to all mankind that the salvation of the state depended on the superior abilities of the Athenian commanders; and they even seemed resolved to abandon a cause which involved their own political existence, sooner than relinquish a vain point of honour. The Athenian generals yielded to the vain punctilio, and yet posterity has awarded to Themistocles and Aristides the honours due to the consummate art and skill which they displayed. We shall see this spirit of jealousy rise into a flame that will consume the liberties of Greece.

After the defeat of the Persians, a misunderstanding arose, very little to the honour of Sparta. That haughty people interposed to prevent the Athenians from rebuilding their citadel and walls, recently demolished by the Persians, alleging that it was dangerous for such works to fall into the enemy's hands, in case of a more successful invasion. Protected themselves from foreign invasion, by their peninsular situation, they showed a jealous and ungenerous indifference to the safety of their most exposed neighbours. By artful delays, and protracted embassies, Themistocles caused the walls and citadel to rise, before the Spartans could effectually oppose the progress of the work. Notwithstanding this early and continued jealousy, a variety of circumstances will delay the fatal conflict about fifty years; a period which we now proceed to review in a brief outline.

The facts to be related, develop the causes which raised Athens to a decided and dangerous ascendancy in Greece, and provoked that desolating war which proved so fatal to all the states, and more immediately disastrous to Athens herself. The victory of Marathon, and the conspicuous services of Aristides and Themistocles in the late battles, imparted to Athens a new lustre, and gave her a more imposing attitude among the states of Greece than she ever assumed before. The character of Cimon, and his conduct at the head of the fleet, gained for his country the homage or alliance of all the coasts and islands of the Ægean sea.

No sooner were the Persian armies chased out of Greece, and destroyed, than the Athenians resumed their original intention of setting at liberty the Greek colonies of Thrace and Asia Minor, who detested the Persian yoke, and implored the aid of their victorious brethren. The Spartan fleet united with that of Athens, and the Spartan Pausanias, still arrogated to himself the chief command, notwithstanding the

superiority of the Athenians. His haughty and disdainful deportment, and at length his treasonable correspondence with the king of Persia, to whom he was pledged to betray that freedom for which he had lately fought, alienated the minds of all the allies, and actually transferred the command of the fleet to Aristides and Cimon, the Athenian generals. From that time, the great Cimon prosecuted the patriotic work of deliverance, and enjoyed an almost uninterrupted career of glory for thirty years,—from about 3525 to 3555. He flew from one scene of victory to another; delivered the cities of Thrace, of the Hellespont, and of Asia Minor, from the despotism of the great king, and brought them all into a close and honourable alliance with Athens. On two occasions, first in 3535, again in 3555, the year of his death, he defeated a Persian fleet of superior numbers, and instantly rushed upon the land, and attacked and routed a superior army the same day. Cimon did not derive the lustre of his name solely from his warlike achievements. His popular manners, and the generous use he made of the riches acquired by the plunder of the enemy, endeared him to all his fellow-citizens, who saw with gratitude and delight his private walks and splendid gardens thrown open for public amusement, and his plentiful table spread for the use of the indigent. He was once banished for a short time, by the powerful influence of his rival Pericles; but Pericles himself was the first to propose his recall; and this great and noble character died in a blaze of glory, adorned with recent laurels, after having, by a long career of unexampled success, extended the influence and alliance of Athens over an immense extent of sea-coast, that before groaned under a distant despot.

Pericles was the son of Xantippus, who achieved the victory of Mycale, 3525. The mother of Pericles was also of the most illustrious lineage, and his early education and promise were equal to his other pretensions. He first began to figure at Athens about 3535, when both Aristides and Themistocles had disappeared from the stage of action. He was the rival of Cimon in fame and in power; but he survived his rival twenty years, and enjoyed unbounded sway at Athens, in spite of Thucydides, who took the place of Cimon. If there was no particular department of public or private life in which Pericles excelled all other men, so there have been few men superior to him in any respect whatever. A consummate statesman, a thundering orator, a persuasive and eloquent advocate, a citizen of the most obliging condescension and address; as a commander, deliberate in council, prompt and successful in execution; a man of exquisite taste, devotedly fond of the elegant arts, which flourished in his age more than in any other period of Grecian history. Statues, edifices, and pictures were multiplied and employed to adorn every part of the noble city.

The popular affability and address of Pericles, his eloquence, taste, liberality, and profound sagacity, would now command our unmingled admiration, had they not then been too much employed as the engines of an inordinate ambition. Almost without regular appointment, Pericles engrossed for himself the government of Athens, and gained for Athens the government of all Greece. His wonderful talents com-

manded deference; his compliance, caresses; and general indulgence to the people, soothed their minds, and secured their suffrages. This eminent statesman has been severely censured, for fanning the flame of discord between Athens and Sparta, and precipitating them into a fatal war, at a time when his influence was capable of moderating and composing the jealous irritation of the parties.

The remote and immediate causes of the famous Peloponnesian war have been accurately traced, and stated by the historians of that age. The character and institutions of the Spartans seemed to insure their superiority over the other states of the Peloponnesus; and the jealous hatred of those states was the natural consequence of their forced submission. The Athenians extended their milder influence over the coasts and islands of the *Ægean*, by the generous enterprise of Cimon, and the profound policy of Pericles. This refined system was less offensive than the morose despotism of Sparta; and yet the Athenian allies could not fail to discover that the arts of Pericles would ultimately leave them no more than the shadow of freedom. The intrigues of each party carefully infused the venom of jealousy into the suspicious minds of the allies and subjects of the other; and the symptoms of future war were manifested or suppressed during fifty years, as the caprice of men, and the accidental tide of fortune occasionally prompted. The pacific offices of Cimon, several times suspended or healed an open rupture. The contrary bias of Pericles opposed the pacific policy; and as the evil passions of men are more easily aroused than appeased, Pericles oftener prevailed than Cimon, who made his appeal to the calm sense and reason of his countrymen. On one occasion, Cimon was banished for having persuaded the Athenians to send him at the head of some forces, whose assistance had been implored by the Spartans, assailed by their slaves amidst the ruins of an earthquake, which convulsed their city, and precipitated the impending rocks of Taygeta into its streets. The minds of men were soured by real or supposed provocations; the busy embassies that professed to negotiate peace, only entangled the parties in new difficulties: indeed, all foresaw the certainty of a struggle; and years of seeming negotiation, were actual delays for preparation, for gaining allies by intrigue, and for setting a keen edge to resentment. For thirty years after the expedition of Xerxes, Cimon was gaining new allies for Athens, by delivering new islands and new cities from the Persian yoke. In 355, the last victory of Cimon compelled Artaxerxes to submit to the terms dictated by the Grecians; and a peace was concluded. If the policy of Pericles could have brought Athens and Sparta to an immediate trial of strength, the gratitude of the Athenian allies for recent deliverance, would have insured their ardour and fidelity in the struggle. But the experience of twenty years had developed the ambitious views of their protectors, and disclosed their own subservient condition: fidelity faltered, jealousy was awakened, and resentment kindled. The states contiguous to Sparta, and most exposed to its odious encroachments, espoused the cause of Athens; and those bordering on Attica joined Sparta for similar reasons. The inferior states, which had no hopes of dominion, would have been satisfied with independence. Athens and Sparta could brook no independence but their own, and both lusted for domi-

nion. The result of their silly contest will display the madness of such ambition; but a similar result in every instance, from that time to this, has not yet convinced or instructed minds that court misery under the guise of glory and ambition. It is the same stupid delusion which be-addles the brains of murderers, robbers, thieves, perjurers, and traitors, and abandons them to the fatal conviction that they are exempt from the exposure, infamy, condemnation, remorse, and horror, that have inevitably overtaken all others involved in similar guilt. It is the same pitiful delusion that makes men strive and strut out of the sphere for which they were designed; waste their substance, and plunge into debt to be respectable, and court the company of those who despise them. The folly is the same in all; it is the folly of expecting the irreversible decrees of heaven to be reversed in our behalf alone.

Ten years after the peace with Persia, a war broke out between Corinth, and Corcyra, her colony. The interval had been devoted to secret intrigue and preparation; the war unveiled at once all the bitter passions that policy or dissemblance had concealed. The Corcyreans appealed to the Athenians for aid; and all the interest and eloquence of Pericles were exerted to procure a decree favourable to their application. The deputies from Corinth and Sparta opposed the interference of Athens, but the voice of Pericles prevailed, and aid was sent to Corcyra. A series of strange vicissitudes attended the operations of this war. Two factions of Corcyra alternately prevailing, butchered and destroyed each other with every circumstance of atrocious perfidy and savage cruelty. The Spartans were not indifferent spectators of events that might result in bringing the Ionian islands into a close alliance with Athens, whose power and ambition already threatened the liberties of Greece. Embassy after embassy only served to disclose the jealousy of the parties, and sharpen their resentment. The pride of Athens was as pernicious as the ferocity of Sparta. Gratuitous provocations were added to wanton mischief, and a convulsive struggle was hurried on by the perverseness of individuals, abetted by the licentious humours of a turbulent democracy. The keen eye of a discerning statesman might, perhaps, have discovered the seeds of inevitable war, and the present advantages, which delay might jeopardize. The ambition of Pericles has been arraigned; but his motives are inscrutable to us at this time. Perhaps he calmly and honestly surveyed the restless allies of his country, equally ready to revolt, or engage in any expedition that was set on foot. At any rate, while he lived, he stood erect in war, and magnanimous in counsel, stemming the tempest when he could no longer direct it. The rage of plague and pestilence was not obvious to human foresight, nor one of the chances which a statesman of Greece was bound to estimate. From Egypt, through Asia, the fatal infection made its circuit to Athens and Attica. The Spartans had invaded and laid waste; and the Athenian navy recalled them to the defence of their own coasts and seaports: but the arm of valour could not resist this new enemy; it withered and perished. Medical skill was equally unavailing. Instant distraction and despair seized the victim, and torment finished the patient before the physician arrived. Pericles, with horror, saw his children seized and hurried into the common grave. His public and private griefs could not unman his

great soul; but disease and death preyed upon his mortal powers, and he sunk down in the midst of his country's affliction. This melancholy tragedy closes the second year of the war.

What a crowd of reflections attend us in pursuing the sad narrative through the vicissitudes of twenty-seven years, to the close of the grand drama. Lately, Greece united defied and humbled the giant of eastern despotism. The sons of freedom stood amazed at their own achievements; their adventurous spirits sought distant scenes of danger and glory. Assailed on his own coasts, menaced or surprised every moment at some new point of attack, the Persian trembled on his remote throne of Susa, and sought peace by humble submission. The first calm of peace displays the genius of man, devoted to every elegant art. The mind tries to dwell on the pleasing picture; but impending clouds obscure the view, and exhibit the elements of future tempests and final ruin. Greece was fatally impelled to its own destruction.

The Peloponnesian war commenced 3573, two years before the death of Pericles. For six successive campaigns, the Spartans uniformly invaded Attica, laying waste the country, insulting the capital, seeking the combat. Unequal to their enemies in the field, the Athenians sallied out with their superior fleet, and sailing round the Peloponnesus, spread terror and desolation on the whole coast. Even during the plague at Athens, the Spartans did not insult the miseries of their antagonists with impunity. Mutual waste and distress was the only result of these six campaigns. From that time, the scene of the war was shifted to different parts of Greece. A little island on the west of the Peloponnesus became the theatre of a most obstinate and bloody conflict, which, after many turns of fortune, terminated in favour of the Athenians, and reduced the Spartans to sue for peace. Elated with this success, the Athenians declined all reasonable terms; the negotiation ended, and the seat of war was removed to Thrace, where the Athenians possessed a number of large and flourishing cities. Brasidas, the brave Spartan, gained a decisive victory over the boastful Cleon; both fell in the action, and this event was improved by the friends of peace to hush up the war. A peace for fifty years was soon concluded, called the peace of Nicias, on account of the decided interest and influence of Nicias, the Athenian, in the adjustment. The peace of Nicias took place in the tenth year of the war, 3583. By this treaty, the fury of the war was suspended about six years; but the animosity of the parties never subsided in the least: infractions of the treaty were mutually alleged, and vehemently urged; partial hostilities were carried on by the minor parties, and so little did the times wear the aspect of peace, that the doubtful respite is actually reckoned as a part of the famous twenty-seven years; beginning 2573, and ending 3600. The headstrong passions of the famous Alcibiades, are justly accused of replunging the states into the horrors of active war, 3589, six years after the peace of Nicias. This extraordinary young man was a spoiled child; he was the idol of the mob, and eclipsed every rival in every debauch; and being cast in beauty's perfect mould, he was every thing that the most languishing damsel of modern times could wish to see depicted in a romance. We can wish a licentious rabble no greater punishment, than to be the sport of such a leader.

Even if we excuse his youthful sallies, the pupil of Socrates can find no honest apologist for the debasing follies and corrupt practices of riper years. Commotion was the only element in which such a man could live; and he saw with painful anxiety the misunderstanding of Greece about to be reconciled by a new treaty of peace. The Spartan ambassadors arrived at Athens with full powers to grant advantageous terms. With profound dissimulation, Alcibiades, assuming the language of impartial frankness, advised them not to increase the arrogance of the Athenians by declaring their full powers. Easy dupes to this base artifice, the ambassadors witnessed with shame and confusion, the indignation of the Athenian assembly, inflamed by Alcibiades himself, who exclaimed with vehemence against the Spartan state, and urged an immediate declaration of war. Unable to expose the perfidy of Alcibiades, without disclosing their own credulity, the ambassadors withdrew in silence, to render an account of their fruitless mission at Sparta. Still, the cause of peace found so many able advocates, that no serious war would have ensued, had not Alcibiades seized a favourable occasion to persuade the populace, who decided all questions in the assemblies, to engage in a distant enterprise, which he well knew would at once involve all Greece in the flame of war.

The kindred Greeks of Sicily often appealed to their brethren of the mother country, to aid them in distress, or redress their grievances. They sometimes solicited succour against the Carthaginians, their inveterate persecutors; at other times, implored assistance against a domestic tyrant. In this instance, one city prayed to be delivered from the vexatious yoke of another. The eloquence of the great orator Gorgias, was employed by his citizens, the Leontines, to plead their cause against Syracuse, in the Athenian assembly. The business was weighty; the eloquence was manly and pathetic. Nicias, and the other friends of peace saw with trembling anxiety the passions of the multitude inflamed; but the cool admonitions of aged and considerate men, were spurned as the counsels of timid and indolent minds. The impetuous voice of a young man, the darling of a licentious faction, rising up, with grace and dignity in his mien, and rolling a torrent on his tongue, communicated an impulse that hurried the people on beyond the control of council and wisdom.

The disastrous expedition against Sicily fills a little more than two years. The whole interval is darkened with stormy vicissitudes, and closed with the most frightful catastrophe. Alcibiades, who urged the enterprise, and Nicias, who opposed it, were associated in command. The embarkation was an imposing spectacle. The arrival in Sicily was succeeded by a well-directed blow against a small city. The promise of success seemed fair, when messengers arrived from Athens, commissioned to recall and arrest Alcibiades on a charge of having mutilated the statues of the tutelar Minerva, in a midnight frolic, before his departure. His demand of a trial before he embarked had been refused by the same capricious mob that now so soon demanded his return and condemnation. On his way home he escaped from his keepers, and flew to Sparta, where his former antipathy was forgotten, in consideration of his fresh resentment, and hostile measures against his own country. In the apprehension of a modern, the mutilation of a

statue, even of Minerva, would be less criminal than deadly hostility to one's own country. In that age the distinction was not so clear.

The lovers of tragedy may enjoy an ample repast in any minute history of the siege of Syracuse, besieged by the Athenians, and assisted by the Corinthians and Spartans. The vicissitudes of the war were sudden and frequent. The party that triumphs in success, and exults in plenty to-day, to-morrow sinks into despair and famine. The last sudden reverse was fatal to Nicias and his whole army; though the recent arrival of Demosthenes with a reinforcement, had seemed only the day before to insure the Athenians a certain triumph, and actually struck the besieged with panic terror. The execution of the two Athenian generals, and the destruction of the whole army, disgraced the character of Syracuse, and threw Athens into consternation. The general panic was soon succeeded by an activity and enterprise suited to the occasion. The late misfortune was a signal of revolt to some of the discontented allies, who seized the favourable juncture to regain their independence, or rather to throw themselves into the more cruel arms of the Spartans. As they were soon reduced to submission, their revolt only drew upon them a more rigorous servitude. About twenty years of the war were now accomplished; the remaining seven years carry us to a new scene of action, and introduce new parties. Darius the Second, or Nothus, filled the throne of Persia from 3580 to 3600. His father, Artaxerxes Longimanus, had submitted to a humiliating peace, imposed by Cimon, in 3555. Darius, the son, lost Egypt by revolt, about the middle of his reign, 3590; and that country remained independent upwards of sixty years. The bloody contest between Athens and Sparta, engaged the attention of the Persian monarch, who espoused the cause of Sparta, and contributed in no small degree to the calamities of Athens. The future operations were transferred to the Ægean sea, and its numerous islands, the allies of Athens. History here announces the Spartan Lysander, an odious name, or glorious, if a cold, bloody career can make it so. Alcibiades comes upon the stage again. He escaped now from the jealous rage of the Spartan king, who took no fancy to the seducer of his queen, and disowned her son. The versatile genius of Alcibiades had submitted to the soup and meagre diet imposed by the laws of Lycurgus; but history testifies that revenge was his motive, and that he found some compensation for compliance with rude abstinence, in the favour of the Spartan queen. We shall soon see him arrayed again on the side of his country.

Darius Nothus displayed the ancient grudge of his family against the Athenians, by his steady adherence to the Spartan interest; but his palace of Susa was at an immense distance from the theatre of operations, which were necessarily left much to the discretion of his governors or satraps in Asia Minor. A jealous policy divided this appointment between two governors of equal authority, who might assist, oppose, or watch each other, as their respective instructions or inclinations directed. Alcibiades, after his flight from Sparta, took refuge at Sardis, the residence of the satrap of Lydia.

His resentment against his country was now cooled, or abated, by a more recent injury from the enemy whom his advice had effectually served for several years. His change of sentiment and purposes, how-

ever, must lurk in his own bosom, till it could be revealed with safety and advantage. The character of the man was adapted to the delicacy of the transaction. His rash, precipitate manner, veiled from common penetration the duplicity and versatility of his nature. The circumstances of the day imposed the deepest dissimulation; and, as the exercise of that quality cost him nothing, the crafty Athenian still professed to consult the interest of Sparta. Yet, in the eye of a Persian satrap, it was no offence to consider the welfare of the Persian monarch, and some subtle insinuations were well received. The policy of humbling Athens, was praised as sound, since she had inflicted the severest blows; but the total ruin of Athens was incompatible with the peace and safety of the world, since then the whole power of Greece would concentrate at Sparta, and the throne of Asia might soon be shaken by the combination of powers, that a just foresight would balance and divide. The wisdom of these suggestions, dimly apprehended by Darius and his ministers, was afterwards realized too late by his successors, who will learn to tremble at the name of Sparta, and finally, lie prostrate at the feet of a Macedonian, whose dominion over Greece was supinely witnessed by the court of Susa. The success of Alcibiades was sufficient for his own fame, and competent to save his countrymen from every thing but their blind infatuation, which nothing could cure, as the event will manifest.

A decisive blow had been meditated by the speedy co-operation of a newly-raised Persian fleet with that of Sparta, then stationed in the *Ægean*. The inaction of that fleet would expose the Spartans, confident of its aid, to sudden surprise, and disconcert all their deep-laid plans. The negotiation was perplexed with difficulties. The satrap balanced with timid scruples; his head was at the mercy of a despot, whose instructions were ambiguous; his motions were watched by the eagle eye of a rival governor; the Spartans pressed his hearty co-operation, and partly penetrated his secret intentions. Alcibiades had a wily game to play; first, to enlist the Persian, and preserve him in a steady purpose of mind; next, to apprise and consult his countrymen without hazarding too free a publicity; then to reconcile his exasperated countrymen to him, regain their confidence, and reap a suitable harvest of honour and advantage from the conclusion of the whole transaction. Prejudice, patriotism, mystery, all seemed to combine to baffle the negotiation. No man precisely understood what he advocated, or what he opposed. The armies were abroad; one thing might be resolved in the camp, another in the city; confusion pervaded both. One of the conditions on which the state could command the services of the exile, was a revolution in government which deprived the people of their tumultuary power in the assemblies, and confided all authority to the aristocracy of four hundred.

Finally, every demand was literally complied with, and Alcibiades was received with transports of joy at the head of the forces. The Persian fleet lay inactive, and abandoned the Spartans to their fate. The Athenians soon exulted in their repeated victories. The Spartans either fled, or suffered inevitable defeat in every encounter. The Athenian fleet from the *Ægean* passed into the Hellespont, where the same victorious career distinguished the new admiral. The enemies were

were routed, and the cities recovered. These honourable deeds covered the hero with a transient glory, which reconciled his mind to revisit his native city. His appearance at Athens was hailed by the noisy acclamations of a gazing, shouting, and whimsical multitude. The government, which had been changed to aristocracy by his request, was now again remodelled, on account of the excesses and usurpations of the new administration; but the aristocratic features were still retained, and the same abuses were practised. At length, having enjoyed the popular homage due to his late exploits, he set out to win new laurels in the same field. The Spartans had collected new forces, but prudently avoided the contest which Alcibiades eagerly sought. One unhappy measure plunged him again into adversity, and hastened his country's ruin. Confident of the friendship of the Persian satrap, he ventured to visit him at Sardis, in hopes of pecuniary assistance. The governor labouring under the displeasure of his master for the aid already lent, threw his imprudent visitor into prison, from which he with difficulty escaped, and returned to his fleet. To crown the miseries of his life, that fleet having engaged the enemy during his absence, contrary to his express orders, had been defeated and shattered. His endeavours to bring on a new engagement were fruitless; murmurs arose; his recent services were forgotten in a moment; the outcry was irresistible; he was again driven into banishment for the slightest fault of his guilty life, if his absence on such an occasion could be esteemed a fault.

Ten new commanders were now appointed, and they were not long without an opportunity of revenging the late defeat. Off the isles of the Arginusae, they gained a complete victory over the Spartans. But a sudden tempest defied all their endeavours to snatch their dead and dying companions from the waves, and perform the last pious offices. As the tempest could not be called to any account, an enraged and sottish multitude made the unhappy generals suffer the forfeit of their heads for what human power could not prevent; yet their heads were the last resource of a falling and ill-fated city. Socrates was left. But surely his sober lectures had been as well addressed to the raging tempest that swelled the sea, as to a brutal populace, that stifled his soothing expostulations with their savage and tumultuous outcries. It requires an effort of patience to forbear exclaiming in this place, Let a speedy and vindictive judgment overtake this wrath-provoking people. Reflection softens and sobers our indignation. Their folly accelerated their fate, and a just pity for their ignorance, would even crave for them the indulgence of a milder doom.

We may venture to assert that the spirit of Athens was broken, and its strength nearly exhausted, since a single defeat decided the contest. The cool and cunning Lysander declined the repeated challenges of the Athenian fleet cruising in the Hellespont, but seized the first careless moment of his taunting adversaries, surprised them in disorder, routed, and dispersed them. Conon, the Athenian commander, afraid or ashamed to seek shelter at home, took refuge in the island of Cyprus, where he remained ten years, till he found a glorious opportunity to efface the stigma of this defeat, and supply the means of re-

building those walls, whose ruin were occasioned, or at least hastened, by his imprudence.

Passing over intermediate transactions of inferior note, we follow the victorious Lysander at once to the port and walls of Athens. The attack was brisk and incessant; the defence was fierce and desperate. Famine soon added to the miseries of the besieged; the surrender of the city was delayed about three months, when perfidy within aided the valour of the assailants. The ports and the walls were destroyed by the rage and jealousy of the conquerors; the citadel was preserved to shelter a Spartan garrison from the fury of the people they were left to oppress and harass. Thirty Athenian citizens, devoted to the interests of Sparta, were appointed to lord it over the city, to deride its groans, and aggravate its miseries. We shall see these Thirty Tyrants hurled from their guilty eminence: but the narrative lies beyond the limits of this Lecture, which closes with the taking of Sparta, in 3600.

The Greek philosophers that appeared in succession for the two centuries before this great event, have been overrated individually; but their progressive excellence is a subject of pleasing inquiry. They all possessed acuteness of thought, and a singular felicity and fluency of language. Their temperance and activity invigorated their powers both of mind and body. But their exercises, both mental and gymnastic, were often, or rather generally, frivolous. Their habit of travelling through Asia, Egypt, the islands, and states of Greece, increased their stock of intelligence, as well as their natural acuteness; but it also filled their minds with new absurdities. Thales, Pythagoras, Anaximander, Anaximenes, Anaxagoras, Archelaus, and Socrates, flourished in this period. Plato, comes next, and then Aristotle; yet philosophy was in its infancy, while poetry, oratory, sculpture, and architecture, rose to great perfection. The drama also was zealously and successfully cultivated: Æschylus, Euripides, Sophocles, courted the tragic muse, while the comic Aristophanes lashed their faults, and ridiculed their rival pretensions

LECTURE III.

IF a true lover of romance should be compelled to forego fiction, and accept facts, there are some periods of history that would almost reconcile him to the odious exchange. We might, perhaps, hazard an opinion that some genuine narratives, suitably decorated with the graces of style, would assume so much an air of fable as to impose upon the most exquisite connoisseurs. The events of the century reviewed in the preceding lecture, are calculated to engage the mind, and excite an ardent curiosity to learn the sequel. The pursuit answers the fullest expectations that romantic dreams could inspire—intrepid enterprize, heroic deeds, frightful perils, lamentable sufferings, shocking crimes, cruel deaths, sudden escapes, marvellous deliverances, love, pity, malice, poison, all the deformities, and all the perfections that mingle in the brilliant fancies and deep conceits of modern writers of fiction.

A crowd of important transactions distinguish the very opening of this eventful century. The deliverance of Athens; the usurpation of Dionysius the Elder, at Syracuse, and his wars with the Carthaginians; the death of Darius Nothus, and accession of his son, Artaxerxes Mnemon; the expedition of Cyrus the Younger against his brother Artaxerxes, and the famous retreat of the ten thousand Greeks, conducted and described by Xenophon.

The Athenian populace deserved, and have received the execration of posterity; they seemed to court the bitter judgment that Providence inflicted: yet the name of Athens is dear to mankind; and its calamities enlist the sympathies of the coldest reader in every age. The number of illustrious personages that arose to adorn that little city, redeems its character from the infamy and odium reflected upon it by a capricious and cruel multitude; and the severest censor never overlooks the rudeness and ignorance common in those times to the lower classes, in every known city and country. Despotism is a curse to every people, and democracy is only a blessing to enlightened communities. Misery is the fated condition of every ignorant people, and no form of government can make them happy.

Whatever punishment the Athenians deserved, they amply suffered under the yoke of Sparta and the *Thirty Tyrants*. A faction long devoted to the interest of the Spartans, and now their chosen instruments of oppression, were not slow in selecting their victims, nor timid in the business of torture and execution. Revenge marked out its objects; jealousy rolled its saffron eyes around for prey; and wanton cruelty fixed its fangs on all that revenge and jealousy would spare. Grief was hushed into silence; a tear or sigh was treason; and men without a murmur or visible emotion, must witness the cruel stroke that robbed them of their innocent and unoffending friends. Socrates, we know not how, was spared, to be the victim of licentious freedom. Voluntary exile prolonged the life of some for daring enterprizes and noble deeds.

Thrasybulus, with a little band of kindred spirits, found an asylum at Thebes. The Thebans had blindly fought the battles of Sparta, in hopes of humbling Athens, without once reflecting that they were forging their own chains. But they were not long in making the discovery, after the capture of that city, and the conclusion of the war had rendered their equal alliance unnecessary, and even offensive to Sparta. This late discovery reconciled the Thebans to their prostrate enemies, and prepared them to give a kind reception to Thrasybulus and his party, the generous deliverers of their country. To appreciate the heroic enterprize which we are about to witness, we must recollect that a Spartan garrison in the citadel of Athens guarded the cruel despotism of the thirty vigilant tyrants. Spartan spies infested the streets, and invaded the houses of Thebes, and every motion of the exiles was scrutinized. Yet such was the secrecy, skill, and caution of these daring adventurers, that their departure in different disguises, and various directions, was unnoticed at Thebes, and first announced to the admiring Athenians in the surprise and capture of the port of Piræus. On the first alarm, the Thirty Tyrants led their chosen band of armed citizens to the instant slaughter, as they thought, of the returning ex-

iles, so few in number. But it was a combat of a few heroes with a host of slaves, who had submitted to be the instruments of a despotic sway over their unarmed fellow-citizens, without courage or spirit to brave the assault of heroes, inspired with a love of freedom, and stung by recent injury. The first onset decided the victory; and when the exiles called out to their flying fellow-citizens to desert the tyrants, and join the standard of freedom, the invitation was instantly accepted: the soldiers, just before the prop of tyranny, now caught the enthusiasm of their returning brethren, marched with them to the city, and equally enjoyed the pleasing spectacle of their cruel masters flying in all directions from the sudden tempest that burst upon their heads. This noble transaction is dated in the year 3604; and is rendered the more striking by a precisely similar enterprise, twenty-two years later, in 3626, by which Pelopidas, and other Theban exiles at Athens, delivered Thebes from the fangs of the perfidious and cruel Spartans.

The first transports of joy at Athens were succeeded by just apprehensions of the power and vengeance of Sparta; but the mild and pacific disposition of Pausanias, one of the Spartan kings, checked the sullen fury of his people, and secretly favoured the interest of Athens. He was obliged to dissemble his views, and appear to attempt the recovery of the city; but his well-timed cautions and delays saved it even from any serious trial of strength. The name of Sparta, however, was terrible, and for some years inspired the Athenians with a cautious and dissembling spirit, which reduced them, in appearance, to a secondary rank, till the long contest between Sparta and Thebes emboldened them once more to resume their ancient station of equality.

After the deliverance of Athens, the states of Greece struggled about forty years against the domineering encroachments of Sparta, till the battle of Mantinea, 3641, in which Epaminondas, the Theban, triumphed over that haughty power, and humbled it to a secondary grade. Had the Spartans rested satisfied with a moderate dominion, or a firm and temperate use of their superiority, they might have swayed all Greece for a long time, and prevented those wasting wars that demolished their own power, and reduced the whole country under the dominion of Macedon. Instead of exercising a mild policy, and reconciling the minds of men to their pretension, by uniting them all in some great project, they rashly tried the patience of their allies and subjects, trusted entirely to their physical strength to insure obedience, and ventured alone to attempt the subversion of the Persian monarchy, without deigning to consult their neighbours, or allow them to participate in the glory.

The invasion of Asia by the Spartans, brings into view a hero who long figured the chief of the Greeks, and valiantly sustained the sinking glory of Sparta, till the fatal battle of Mantinea. We allude to king Agesilaus, who, with the aid of Lysander, supplanted Leotychides, the lawful heir, on pretence that he was not the son of Agis, but of Alcibiades. Posterity is indifferent to the parties, and could not decide their pretensions on any known testimony. It is sufficient for us that Agesilaus disowned his brother's heir, and got him set aside. Two such generals as Agesilaus, and his friend Lysander, were capable of leading the Spartans to glorious exploits, and of shaking a great

empire by their effective enterprises. Their pretence for invasion was the protection of the Asiatic Greeks from the tyranny of Persia, under which they had fallen after the downfall of Athens. Their destructive incursions soon betrayed more extensive schemes, and the facility with which they abandoned the Greeks of Asia in a treaty a few years after with the Persian monarch, unveiled their selfish policy. The Persian monarch witnessed their progress with panic terror, instructed by the folly of his father, Darius Nothus, who had aided those very Spartans against Athens, and admonished by the celebrated expedition of his brother, who had lately penetrated to the heart of his dominions, and menaced his throne.

In the midst of his embarrassment and dread, a well-timed policy brought relief to the mind of the Persian. He saw the use that he might make of the discontent of Greece, which would kindle into a flame, if suitably encouraged with timely aid. Secret embassies encouraged the disaffected states to take up arms, and liberal supplies of money actually enabled them to commence their hostile operations with energy and success. Argos, Corinth, Thebes, broke out into open and decisive revolt. Athens pursued a more cautious course, from a dread of Sparta; but her feelings were equally hostile, and her measures, on the whole, favoured the league. Agesilaus was urging on his career of victory in Asia Minor, and flattering his hopes with the promise of a mighty conquest, when he received a peremptory command from his country to return into Greece and defend it against the formidable power of the league. His obedience was as prompt as the order was painful. He marched through Thrace into Bœotia, encountered the confederates in an indecisive combat, and retired to Sparta, having merely checked the success of the allies. This was the year 3610.

The same year exhibited on another scene a more decisive result. In the year 3600, we saw Athens taken by Lysander, after the defeat and flight of Conon, who took refuge from the power of Sparta, and the feeble rage of his own people, at the island of Cyprus. Thrasybulus had restored freedom to his country, but the ports and walls still lay prostrate in ruin, and seemed fated long to continue so. History records with pleasure and surprise, that these ports and walls rose again, rebuilt by the spoils of Sparta, and the gold of Persia, which Conon won, and bore in triumph to Athens. Conon had received a commission from the king of Persia to command a large fleet fitted out against the Spartans. Eager to wipe off the stigma of his former defeat, the intrepid Athenian sought the combat, carried the victory, broke the naval power of Sparta, and flew to his native Athens with the rich booty, which was at once appropriated to rebuild the walls, and strengthen and beautify the city. Thus, ten years after Athens was dismantled, in consequence of Conon's defeat in the Hellespont by Lysander, its works rose again, with their original strength and beauty, in consequence of this victory. From that time she gradually renewed her ancient alliances, and recovered her former islands and cities, but could never regain the political standing which she supported in the time of Pericles.

Such was substantially the state of all the parties at the expiration of

ten years, 3610. The recall of Agesilaus from Asia, relieved the king of Persia, and checked the operations of the league. The victory of Conon broke the Spartan naval power, and restored the superiority at sea to the Athenians. The succeeding ten years was an anxious state of ferment and disaffection; the Spartans watching every motion with jealous care, and all the other states restless, impatient of a superior, but afraid to rise or hazard a doubtful conflict. Finally, in 3617, the Spartans, conscious of their inability to repress much longer the spirit of revolt, sought relief by an expedient that inflicted an eternal stigma upon their character. They agreed to abandon the Greeks of Asia Minor to the mercy of the Persian king, in exchange for his protection of their tyranny in Greece, though they had so lately assailed his dominions under a pretence of vindicating the liberty of those very Asiatic Greeks, now so willingly abandoned.

The clamours of discontent and indignation were now heard with the most provoking apathy by the haughty Spartans, secure in their shameful alliance with a Persian king. Negotiation was busy; remonstrance was loud; but nothing could change the purpose of a Spartan. In 3622, Thebes fell into the hands of a Spartan army, by a stroke of perfidy that would stain the character of any nation in any age. The army was on its march through Bœotia to Thrace, entered the city with honest professions and reluctant permission, perfidiously seized the citadel, and set up a Spartan tyranny over the terrified inhabitants. This wretched condition endured about five years, during which, very few events happened worthy of notice. In 3627, Thebes was unexpectedly delivered by the bold enterprise of a band of Theban exiles at Athens, headed by Pelopidas, and assisted by the cool, deliberate aid of Epaminondas. The whole narrative has the air of romance, more than of real history. The Athenians lent a favourable countenance to a bold enterprise, but still respected the power of Sparta too much to hazard an open contest. The design was entrusted only to a few chosen heroes, who proceeded in the disguise of huntsmen, entered the city by different gates, and united, according to concert, in the dead of night. Some trusty citizens were prepared to receive them, and join in the sudden blow of surprise and slaughter. The calm philosophy of Epaminondas had veiled his heroic virtues from the roving eyes of jealousy, when the impatient and intrepid Pelopidas was pursued into banishment. The heroes were equal in courage and integrity, and unlike in all other qualities. Both sighed for the liberty of Thebes, one a silent spectator of the oppression that drove the other from its bosom.

The heedless hour of debauch was chosen to assail and despatch the tyrants. The rustling of a leaf, or the barking of a dog might have defeated the conspiracy, stifled the fame of two illustrious men, and changed the history of Greece. But the convivial security of the tyrants, the fortune and fearful vigilance of the exiles, conducted the conspiracy to a successful issue. The tyrants fell by the daggers of intrepid men; the noise of the scuffle awakened the city to the horrors of commotion, and the agonies of dreadful suspense. No man could inform another of the cause of the tumult. Shrieks and screams expressed the distressing uncertainty of women and children, and increased

the perplexities of the men. The appearance of day disclosed the fall of tyrants and the triumph of liberty. In a moment, every man was a hero; one impulse carried the exulting populace to the citadel; the fury of attack was for a while resisted, but soon prevailed, and Thebes was forever delivered from Spartan tyrants and Spartan garrisons, in 3627.

As soon as this news reached Sparta, an army was put in motion; but all attempts to penetrate to Thebes failed. An indecisive conflict marks the next six years, till the glorious battle of Leuctra, in which Epaminondas and Pelopidas made a bloody havoc in the Spartan ranks, and gained a complete triumph. In an interval of eight years more, till the battle of Mantinea, nothing very memorable occurred, except the famous expeditions of Pelopidas into Thessaly, against Alexander, tyrant of Pheræ. Prompt to obey the summons of the Thessalians, oppressed by that cruel and perfidious tyrant, Pelopidas entered the country with some Theban soldiers, defeated the tyrant, and then following the impulse of precipitate valour, rushed into his enemy's snares, and became a prisoner. He was not permitted to languish long in that situation. The inviolable friendship of Epaminondas soon brought another army that humbled the tyrant, and set his captive free. But the groans of the oppressed people soon called Pelopidas back to Thessaly, and victory again perched upon his standard; but the heat of resentment again urged him to encounter the tyrant in single combat, and he fell, slaughtered by the tyrant's guards, a victim to rash courage.

The fame of his justice and magnanimity was known to the neighbouring nations. The Persian king received him in the character of an ambassador, and honoured him above others connected in the embassy. The mother of Philip of Macedon drew him to that court to adjust the quarrels among her sons, disputing the succession of their deceased father, Amyntas the Second. On this occasion he was permitted to take Philip, the youngest son, then ten years of age, among other hostages, to bind the parties to his award. The residence of Philip at Thebes, for ten years, and his extraordinary education, then under the greatest masters of Greece, was fruitful in consequences. We shall soon see him mount the throne of Macedon, after the death of his elder brothers. Pelopidas died 3638, three years before the battle of Mantinea, which consummated the glory of his country, and reduced Sparta to the second rank of states.

From 3610 to 3641, the Spartans and Thebans displayed the jealous animosity which lust of power on one side, and impatience of the yoke on the other, never fail to engender. There were, however, but a few active and bloody campaigns between them for so long an interval of hostility; the rancour, irritation, and invective never ceased; irresolute campaigns, skirmishes, and commotions, were frequent; but the detail is tedious. The deliverance of Thebes by the exiles, the battle of Leuctra, and the battle of Mantinea, are the principal events of interest; and there was an interval of several years between them. Sparta was, for the first time, profaned by the hostile tread of the Theban army, led by Epaminondas: he was repulsed, and obliged to retreat to Mantinea, in Arcadia, where he fought the enraged foe, and died in

the arms of victory ; a victory that raised his own little state to the first rank, and prostrated the power of Sparta.

After the close of this memorable contest, the short calm that succeeded was soon interrupted by a new and more bloody conflict, called the Phocian, or Sacred war, which completed the disasters of Greece, by introducing the conquering arms of Philip. That sagacious and aspiring young man unexpectedly found the throne of his father left open to his ambition by the death of two elder brothers, and the infancy of the lawful heir. Fearing some detention at Thebes, he stole clandestinely away, flew to Macedon, and usurped the throne of his nephew at the age of twenty, having been a hostage at Thebes ten years. His residence in Greece set before his eyes the best and brightest models for imitation in the arts of government and war : he witnessed the noble examples of Epaminondas and Pelopidas, and followed them in their campaigns. He listened with raptures to the lectures of Plato, Aristotle, Epaminondas, and other sages of that period ; in fine, to the natural fierceness and subtilty of a barbarian, he united all the refinement, policy, and learning that education could bestow in the most flourishing period of Grecian literature.

Difficulties beset this young monarch in every shape, and on every hand. The claim of an infant nephew stood in his way ; the competition of brothers perplexed him ; barbarous neighbours, despising his youth, harassed his kingdom ; his own barbarous subjects disputed his sway and preferred his competitors ; and the Athenians espoused the cause of his brothers. Merely to say that he surmounted all these formidable difficulties, would be praise due to him in common with a thousand others, who have overcome as great, if not greater obstacles. But to glide through them all, without appearing to struggle, or fearing to sink, was a felicity peculiar to this extraordinary personage. The perpetual wars that engaged his attention, never ruffled the man nor jeopardized the monarch. He flew from place to place with the same ease as speed ; his victory was sure, and his attack or defence as cool as it was fierce. Conscience interposed no check ; its voice was silent or stifled, and the politician predominated. No good man could undertake or accomplish what Philip did ; but he was a greater and better man than his irresistible son, Alexander ; and it is as ridiculous to measure the vices of Philip by the invectives of Demosthenes, as to estimate the virtues of Augustus by the praises of Virgil. The same indulgence that would give Augustus no harsher name than bloody tyrant, would rank Philip among saints.

Such was the conqueror of Greece ; and the civil distractions of Greece favoured his inordinate ambition. The Athenians had allies and colonies on the whole coast of Thrace and Macedon, adjoining Philip's hereditary territories, and tempting his ambition ; and they had afforded him some provocation by espousing the cause of his competitors and enemies. As soon as he had composed the dissensions of his own kingdom, repressed the barbarians, and established his throne, he commenced a crafty course of intrigue and war, to reduce all around him to his subjection. He caressed the cities in alliance with Athens, and allured them to his interest by promises of protection and independence.

INTRODUCTION

TO

ANCIENT GEOGRAPHY.

THE reader who has occasion to consult maps, may usefully direct his researches in the following order and manner: On a map representing the whole world, or, at any rate, the whole Eastern continent, the situation of the Mediterranean Sea between Europe and Africa should be carefully noticed; and also the Strait of Gibraltar, through which this sea communicates with the Atlantic. Observe the situation of Spain, France, Italy; ancient Greece comprised in modern Turkey in Europe, and Asia Minor comprised in modern Turkey in Asia, all on the north side of the sea. On the south side, Morocco, Algiers, Tunis, Tripoli, Lybia, (including Cyrene,) and Egypt. On the east end of the sea; Syria, Phœnicia, and Palestine, included in modern Turkey in Asia. Observe the different expansions and contractions of this sea; its gulfs, bays, and arms. Notice the situation of Greece, between the Ionian sea, and the Ægean or Archipelago. Bound Asia Minor, and notice particularly the succession of seas and straits that form the chain of communication between the Mediterranean, and Black, or Euxine seas. The subdivisions of Greece and Asia Minor, are given at the end of the chart.

Trace a voyage round the peninsula of Africa, through the Atlantic and Indian oceans into the Red sea, which lies between Arabia on the east, and Abyssinia and Nubia, (comprised in Upper Etheopia,) and Egypt on the west. Another voyage round the peninsula of Arabia, into the Persian Gulf, conducts to ancient Chaldea, or Shinar, situated at the head of the Gulf, on the rivers Euphrates and Tigris. North of Chaldea lies Mesopotamia, between the Euphrates and Tigris, which have their sources in Armenia, still further north. Assyria lies east of the Tigris, which separates it from Mesopotamia. Media and Persia lie between the Caspian and Persian Gulf, and east of Chaldea and Assyria. Babylon was situated on the Euphrates, Nineveh on the Tigris. The Assyrian Empire embraced, at some periods, several other countries besides Assyria proper: the Persian Empire embraced, in addition to Persia proper, all the countries in Asia, from the Indus on the east, to the Grecian seas on the west; and Egypt in Africa was annexed to this empire by Cambyse the son of Cyrus.

General distribution of the above mentioned countries, with their principal cities or towns.

Countries North of the Mediterranean.

SPAIN, GAUL, ITALY, GREECE, MACEDON, THRACE, ASIA MINOR.

East of the Mediterranean.

ARAM, OR SYRIA—CANAAN, OR ISRAEL.

South of the Mediterranean.

EGYPT, LIBYA, AFRICA PROPER, CARTHAGE, NUMIDIA, and MAURITANIA.

On the Tigris and Euphrates.

At the mouth of the two rivers—	SHINAAR, or CHALDÆA.
Between the two rivers	MESOPOTAMIA.
East of the two rivers	ASHUR, or ASSYRIA.
At the head of the two rivers	ARMENIA.

Between the Black and Caspian Seas.

COLCHIS, IBERIA, ALBANIA.

Between the Caspian Sea and the Persian Gulf.

MEDIA, PARTHIA, ELAM or PERSIA.

On the Rhine.

HELVETIA, RHÆTIA.

On the Danube.

ILLYRIA, MÆSIA, NORICUM, VINDELICIA, SCYTHIA, DACIA.

As the countries on the Mediterranean Sea were the scenes of most of the events recorded in ancient history, it is important to know their relative situations.

SPAIN

Was called *Hispania*, and *Hesperia*, by the Romans; its name with the Greeks was *Iberia*. Its divisions were LUSITANIA, corresponding to the modern PORTUGAL in the west, BÆTICA in the south, and TARRACONENSIS in the north and east.

GAUL,

Or, in the native Celtic, Gael, was called Gallia by the Romans, and Celtica by the Greeks. The name of France, which is now applied to the greater part of ancient Gaul, is derived from the Franks, who, 500 A. D., possessed themselves of that portion which lay north of the Loire, whence they gradually extended their empire south. Its ancient divisions were, in the south-west, AQUITANIA; in the south-east NARBONENSIS, in the north-west LUGDUNENSIS; beyond the Seine, in the north, BELGICA; and east of the Alps, CISPINE GAUL, or what is now the north of *Italy*.

ITALY,

Inhabited by *Gauls* in the north, by native *Umbrians*, *Tuscans*, *Samnites*, *Latins*, and *Campanians*, in the centre, and in the south by *Greeks*.

GREECE.

The moderns have taken the name of this country from the Latin; that by which it was known to the Greeks themselves was *HELLAS* for the part north, and *PELOPENNESUS* for that south of the Isthmus of Corinth. The name *Hellas*, however, denoted rather any spot where an Hellenic race prevailed, than a certain geographical boundary. *Achaia* was the name of Greece as a Roman province.

MACEDON,

This country which, from the time of Philip, claimed to be considered as a part of *Hellas*, was most probably of Illyrian origin; and its people, like the other Illyrians, were looked upon as barbarians by the Greeks. Its boundaries were exceedingly variable, particularly on the side towards Thrace.

THRACE.

The people of this country were of heterogeneous races. They claimed nevertheless to be the earliest founders of Greek civilization, and were probably allied in origin as in manners with the people of Asia Minor, on the shores of the Hellespont, before the period of the Trojan war.

ASIA MINOR.

It is important that the learner be cautioned against associating with his idea of Asia as a portion of the ancient world, the notions which he connects with it as a division in modern geography. To the ancients the name of Asia, at different periods, conveyed different meanings. Thus, in the periods before the Persian war, it designated a small region only about the *Cayster*; with the Romans it signified the kingdom of Pergamus, but never at any time became a designation of the great eastern continent, or even of the whole peninsula. Indeed, Persia, or at least Persian, was at all times a term of more extensive signification among both Greeks and Romans, than Asia or Asiatic.

SYRIA,

Which in its most limited acceptance included only the narrow coast of the Mediterranean lying between Egypt and Cilicia, and comprising *PHœNICIA* and the *HOLY LAND*, in a more general sense, included frequently all the country lying west of the Tigris, and even beyond it; as the kingdom of Assyria Proper was not unfrequently embraced within that term. Indeed it is requisite for the student of ancient history to be constantly on his guard against the danger arising from the confusion of the two names in the ancient geographers and historians. As the kingdom of the Selencidæ, Syria attained its greatest extent, including the countries of Phœnicia, Babylonia, &c., and the cities of *Antioch* and *Saleucia*, besides the more ancient capitals.

CANAAN,

Which never extended its name over a very wide tract of country, was divided into the kingdoms of JUDAH and ISRAEL. The latter of these was terminated with the Assyrian, and the former, which continued longer, with the Babylonish captivity. Canaan was bounded by Phœnicia on the north, and by the Wilderness of Arabia on the south.

EGYPT.

The narrow strip of land lying on either side of the Nile was called Egypt, and joined the two continents of Asia and Africa, being sometimes assigned to one and sometimes to the other, though modern geography has determined it to belong to the latter. Its ancient divisions were LOWER EGYPT, or the DELTA; MIDDLE EGYPT, or the HEPTANOMIS and UPPER EGYPT or the THEBAIS. In the early history of Egypt *Thebes* and *Memphis* were the principal cities; indeed, as strictly Egyptian, they continued to be so through all antiquity. But for commercial and political importance in the Græco-Egyptian period of the Ptolemies, the capital was ALEXANDRIA.

LIBYA.

This was the name of the African coast extending from the borders of Egypt to the SYRTIS MAJOR, where it was bounded by AFRICA PROPER. Its southern limit remained always undefined.

AFRICA PROPER,

A part of Africa, from which the name was gradually extended over the whole continent. If we include Carthage, it reached from LIBYA to NUMIDIA, and these are the boundaries assigned to it by Pliny the naturalist and geographer.

NUMIDIA.

This country, which lay between AFRICA PROPER and MAURITANIA, is famous in history from its connexion with the wars of Carthage and Rome. It was the kingdom of Masinissa, for whose sake the third Punic war, which resulted in the ruin of Carthage, was undertaken; and under the rule of Jugurtha, it carried on one of the most obstinate wars against the republic that had ever occupied the Roman arms. On being reduced to a province, it received as its first governor the historian Sallust.

MAURITANIA,

The most western portion of the coast of Africa, and lying immediately opposite to Spain, comprised the countries which now constitute the empire of *Morocco* and *Fez*. It contained a large but uncivilized population in the time of the Romans.

Introduction to the Geography of Greece.

Observe the position of Greece between two seas, the Ægean, which separates it from Asia Minor on the east, and the Ionian, which separates it from the island of Sicily, and the foot of Italy on the west. No-

tice the narrow passage from the Ionian sea into the Adriatic sea, or Gulf of Venice, formed by a considerable projection from Italy, called the heel of Italy, and a small projection from Epirus in Greece, called Acro Ceraunium. Observe a chain of islands distributed along the western coast of Greece, called the Ionian Islands: Corcyra, Leucadia, Cephallenia, Ithaca, and Zacynthus. Passing between Cephallenia and the main land of Greece, enter the narrow Gulf of Corinth, which nearly separates the Peloponnesus from Greece Proper, and trace the Gulf to the isthmus of Corinth, a narrow neck of land which joins the Peloponnesus to Greece Proper. Retreating from the Gulf, coast round the Peloponnesus, carefully noticing the projections which it presents; the little island of Cythera, and the large island of Crete, Melos, and Ægina in the Saronic Gulf, which being on the east side of the isthmus of Corinth, opposite to the Gulf of Corinth, forms a part of the separation between the Peloponnesus and Greece Proper. Observe a chain of small islands ranging with Greece Proper, from north-west to south-east, and a more important chain, ranging with the large island of Eubœa, in the same direction: Andros, Tenos, Delos, Naxos.

Pass through a gulf, a strait, a second gulf, and a second strait, that separate Eubœa from Greece Proper, and after noticing in the way, the inferior gulfs Maliac and Pelasgic, return into the Ægean by the passage north of Eubœa. Coast to the head of the Thermaic Gulf: observe the large peninsula of Chalcis or Chalcidice, projecting three smaller peninsulas; coast round them into the Strymonic Gulf. Observe the Thracian Chersonesus, a peninsula on the west side of the Hellespont; pass through the Hellespont, Propontis, Thracian Bosphorus, into the Euxine north-easterly across the Euxine, through the Cimmerian Bosphorus, into the Mæotis Palus. Return into the Ægean, notice the range of islands along the coast of Asia Minor: Lemnos, Lesbos, Chios, Samos, Cos, and Rhodes; and Cyprus in the Levant south of Asia Minor.

The people of the several states of Northern Greece may be characterized by certain epithets, deduced from their very peculiar and distinguishing characteristics, either of situation, habits, laws, history, or political condition and character.

GREECE PROPER.

Thus: *Sprightly* ATTICS—*Dull* BÆOTIANS—*Sacred* PHOCIANS—*Wandering* DORIANS—*Barbarous* LOCRIANS—*Wild* ÆTOLIANS—*Obscure* ACARNANIANS.

The number of Athenian poets, orators, artists, &c., in comparison with those produced by the other states of Greece, sufficiently vindicate the correctness of the epithet of *sprightly* as applied to the Attics.

The opposite reason equally justifies the application of *dull* to the Bæotians, whose stupidity has passed into a proverb.

Though the Delphians claimed to be a distinct people from the Phocians, yet the seat of their oracle, and the situation of Delphi itself, entitled the Phocians to the epithet of the *sacred*.

Crete, Rhodes, Doris in Asia Minor, the Doric states of Sicily and Italy, and the vast revolutions occasioned by the restless character of the Dorians, attest their *wandering* propensities.

The little advancement of the Locrians in letters and the arts, may be inferred from the fact of their having furnished not a single name in the catalogue of Grecian poets, artists, philosophers, &c.

Ætolia early lost its Hellenic character, so that it became impossible to determine to what race or races its wild and ferocious tribes should be assigned.

The same may be observed of the Acarnanians.

In Hellas Proper were

ATTICA.

CITIES.—*Athens*, with its ports of *Piræus*, *Munychia*, and *Phalerum*; *Eleusis*, which imparted its name to the great *Mysteries*, *Sunium*, *Marathon*, and *Acharnæ*.

MEGARIS.

CITIES.—*Megaris*, *Nisæa*, *Pegæ*.

BÆOTIA.

CITIES.—*Thespiæ*. When the rest of Bœotia submitted to Xerxes, the Thespians alone refused to tender earth and water to his deputies. This city was celebrated as the birth place of the beautiful Phryne, whose statue by Praxiteles vied in beauty with that of Venus. She was so rich that she offered to restore the walls of Thebes at her own expense, if the Thebans would set up this inscription—“*Alexander overthrew, Phryne rebuilt them.*”

Platæa. The Platæans separated themselves from the Bœotian confederacy, and placed themselves under the protection of Athens. They shared the glory of the battle of Marathon, and participated in the great battle which takes its name from their city. The attack made upon them by the Thebans at night was the first act of aggression on the Peloponnesian side in the Peloponnesian war. Nothing in the history of that war is so interesting as the account of the siege of Platæa in the third year, with the gallant defence and successful escape of a part of the garrison.

Thebes, the capital of Bœotia, is of more ancient, if not of greater celebrity than almost any other city of Greece. The arrival and settlement of Cadmus; the birth of Hercules; the story of Œdipus and Jocasta, the wars of the Seven and of the Epigoni, all belong to the poetic history of Thebes. In the more authentic period, she became notorious for her adherence to the cause of the Persians; nor was it till the era of Epaminondas and Pelopidas that she quite recovered her character as an Hellenic city. The battles of Leuctra and Mantinea placed her for a moment at the very head of the affairs of Greece.

Haliartus,—*Coronæa*,—*Lebadæa*, famous for the oracle of Trophœus,—*Chæronæa*, originally *Arne*, the scene of the battle gained by Philip over the Athenians and Bœotians, which ended the liberties of Greece, B. C. 338.

Orchômenus, the second city of Bœotia, and at one time rivalling Thebes in power, wealth, and importance. Homer represents it as vying with the most opulent cities in the world, and its wealth is said

in his time to have been deposited in a building erected for that purpose, which Pausanius describes as equally worthy of admiration with the walls of Tiryns and the pyramids of Egypt. *Tanagra*.

PHOCIS.

CITIES.—*Cirrho*, destroyed by order of the Amphictyons, and its territory declared accursed.

Crissa, famous for the Pythian games celebrated in its plains.

Anticyra.—*Delphi*, the seat of the great Oracle of Apollo, and of the Amphictyonic council.

Elatea and *Daulis*, celebrated in history as the scene of the tragic story of Phlomele and Procne.

DORIS, OR DORIC TETRAPOLIS,

From the four cities of

Citinium, which was entitled to send one delegate to the Amphictyonic council—*Pindus*—*Boium* and *Erineus*.

LOCRI OF THE EPICNEMEDII AND OPUNTIANS.

CITIES.—*Alpeni*—*Cynus*, the chief maritime city of the Opuntian Locri.

Opus, one of the most ancient cities of Greece, and celebrated as the domain of Deucalion and Pyrrha, and as the birth place of Patroclus.

LOCRI OF THE LOCRI OZOLÆ.

CITIES.—*Naupactus*. This city is said to have taken its name, which signifies *ship building*, from the circumstance that the fleet was there built by which the Dorians were conveyed over into the Peloponnesus.

Amphissa, the most important town of the *Locri Ozolæ*. It was destroyed by order of the Amphictyons for having rebuilt the walls and cultivated the grounds of Crissa, which had been declared accursed.

ÆTOLIA.

CITIES.—*Calydon*, celebrated in poetry and mythological story for the adventures of Meleager, the hero of the chase of the *Calydonian* boar. In the historical ages its importance declined till Augustus accomplished its downfall by removing the inhabitants to *Nicopolis*.

Thermus, the place at which the elections of the Ætolian magistrates were ratified, and where their most magnificent festivals and important commercial meetings were held. Though not frequently alluded to in the ancient authors, its size and splendour may be inferred from the circumstance that when surprised by the Macedonians, it contained upwards of 2000 statues, which the invaders defaced in revenge for the excesses committed by the Ætolians at Dodona and Dium. At the same time, 15,000 complete suits of armour found in the city were consumed, after others more costly had been selected as worthy of removal.

ACARNANIA.

CITIES.—*Actium*, notwithstanding its fame as the scene of the great battle which gave Octavius Cæsar the world, appears to have been at that time but the site of a temple, with a small and obscure harbour below.

Amphilochian Argos, and *Æniadæ*.

PELOPONNESUS.

In Peloponnesus the following epithets may be considered as designating with equal correctness the peculiarities of the different provinces :—

Isthmian CORINTH, from its situation.

Fickle ARGOLIS, from the frequency with which it changed sides in the various contests of the different neighbouring states. This character prevented the Argians from ever obtaining that supremacy in the affairs of Greece which their bravery might have acquired. A fabled exception must be made in the time of the Trojan war, when Agamemnon stood at the head of the hundred princes of the famous league.

Laconic SPARTA. The opposite of Athens in every moral and intellectual attribute, Sparta was, most especially so, in that conciseness of speech which has rendered the word laconic a synonyme for brevity of speech, in every tongue.

Servile MESSE니아, from the dependance to which she was reduced by the Spartans, who made Helots of such of her people as chose to remain in their country after the unfortunate struggle of Aristomenes, and the departure of the rest of the Messenians to the places of their voluntary exile.

Sacred ELIS, from the Olympic Games.

Leagued ACHAIA. This league, called the Achæan, was formed first against the Macedonians and afterwards against the Romans. It extended itself at last so as to comprise almost all the states of Greece.

Earliest SICYON, from its antiquity, which dated, at least in fable, from its first king Ægialus, B. C. 2089.

Rural, or Pastoral ARCADIA. The situation of this province, shut out as it was from the sea-coast, and its rugged and mountainous surface, compelled its inhabitants to adopt the pastoral occupation, as the only one by which they could provide themselves with the necessaries of life. The poetic character of the Greeks converted this necessity into a grace; and the fabled residence of Pan and his rural attendants in the caves and glens of Arcadia, have rendered its name synonymous with all that is beautiful and alluring in the life of the shepherd.

The Southern division of Greece or the Peloponnesus, was divided into the following States with their cities.

CORINTHIA.

CITIES.—*Corinth*, on the Isthmus at the entrance of the Peninsula. Its ports were, *Lechæum* on the Corinthian Sinus, the emporium of Corinthian traffic with Western Greece, Italy and Sicily; and *Cenchræ* on the Saronic Gulf, whence the Corinthians traded with Asia and the Cyclades.

ARGOLIS.

CITIES.—*Argos*, the most ancient city of Greece. Its port was *Nauplia*.

Mycenæ, the capital of Argolis during the reign of the Pelopid princes. Its origin was assigned, in fable, to Perseus. After the re-

turn of the Heraclidæ, it declined till the year 468 B. C., when the Argives, having captured it, levelled its walls and buildings, and enslaved its inhabitants.

Tiryns, celebrated for its vast Cyclopean walls, is said to have been founded by Prætus, brother of Acrisius. Its origin was undoubtedly of the earliest Pelasgic period. It was from this city, his patrimonial inheritance, that Hercules, after the murder of Iphitus, fled, and yielded up to his kinsman of the line of Sthenelus the dominion of the Peloponnesus.

LACONIA.

CITIES.—*Sparta* and its port of *Gythium*.

MESSENIA.

CITIES.—*Pylos*, *Methone*, *Æpea*, which, after the restoration of the Messenians, was called *Corone*, where Philopœmen was taken prisoner in the war occasioned by the secession of Messene from the Achæan league.

Andania, the capital of Messenia before the domination of the Heraclidæ.

Messene, and the mountain fortress of *Ira*, the last hold of the Messenians in their wars with Sparta, so long and so wonderfully defended by Aristomenes.

ELIS.

CITIES.—*Elis*. This city always remained without walls, as it was deemed sacred and under the immediate protection of the god whose festival was there solemnized. Hence in early times those troops which were compelled to traverse this country were obliged to deliver up their arms on entering it, and received them back upon quitting the frontier.

Pylos was one of the three ancient cities which disputed the honour of being the capital of Nestor's dominions. The others were Pylos of Triphylia, and the Messenian Pylos. Pausanias admits the claim of the Elian city.

Pisa, the city of Ænomaus and Pelops, which long disputed with Elis the presidency of the Olympic Games.

Olympia, celebrated for its games and for the magnificent temples of Jupiter and Juno.

ACHAIA.

CITIES.—*Sicyon*. Few cities of Greece could boast such an antiquity, since it already existed under the name Ægialea and Mecone, long before the fabled arrival of Pelops in the Peninsula. It was the birth place of Aratus.

Egium, *Patræ*, *Ægira*, and *Dyme*.

ARCADIA.

CITIES.—*Mantineæ*, celebrated for the last battle of Epaminondas.

Orehoenus—*Megalopolis*—*Phigalea*—*Tegæa*, next to Mantineæ, the most ancient city of Arcadia.

The divisions in the north, and sometimes rejected as a part of Hellas Proper, were:—

EPIRUS.

CITIES.—*Ambracia*, the modern *Arta*. This city is remarkable for the gallantry displayed in its defence against the Romans, as well as for the important part which it took in the Peloponnesian war; having, according to Thucydides, sustained in the defeat of its army by Demosthenes the greatest loss that ever befel a Grecian city in the same space of time during the whole war. Its inhabitants were transferred by Augustus to Nicopolis.

Nicopolis, built by Augustus in honour of the victory at Actium, and settled in a great measure by the removal of the populations of the neighbouring cities, and of some even as far as Ætolia.

THESSALY.

CITIES.—*Gomphi*, *Tricca*. It is remarkable that when by a decree of Polysperchon, after the death of Alexander, it was ordered that all exiles throughout the cities of Greece should be allowed to return to their homes, the people of Tricca, and of the neighbouring Pharcadon, alone were excepted.

Gonnus, or *Gonni*—*Larissa*—*Pheræ*, one of the most ancient and important cities of Thessaly, the capital of Admetus, and the scene of the beautiful story of Alcestis. In the historical ages, this city became unfortunately notorious as affording one of the earliest pretexts for the interference of Philip in the affairs of Greece.

Pharsalus, the scene of the last contest between Cæsar and Pompey, and of the final struggle for Roman liberty.

Thebes, denominated Phthiotic, to distinguish it from the more famous Thebes of Bœotia.

Larissa Cremaste, so called from the steepness of its situation, was also named Pelasgia, and was a part of the dominion of Achilles, whence he was called the *Larissæan*.

Iolcos, famous in the heroic ages as the birth place of Jason, was situated at the foot of Mount Pelion, and near the river Anaurus, in which that hero is said to have lost his sandal, an event so intimately connected with the Argonautic expedition. Its harbour was Pagassa, whence the Argo set sail on her adventurous voyage.

Demetrias, which owed its origin and its name to Demetrius Poliorcetes. It soon became an important place, and after the battle of Cynocephalæ was the chief town of the Magnesian republic, and the seat of government.

MACEDON.

The *Chittim* of the sacred writings.

Cities—*Dium*, *Ægæ*, or *Edessa*, *Beræa*, *Therma*, afterwards called *Thessalonica*, *Chalcis*, *Potidæa*, *Olynthus*, and *Acanthus*.

THRACE.

Its principle cities were *Amphipolis* and *Philippi*, sometimes assigned to Macedon, *Abdera*, *Sestos*, *Perinthus*, and *Byzantium*.

GRECIAN ISLANDS.

IONIAN ISLANDS.

CORCYRA, LEUCADIA, ITHACA, CEPHALLENIA, ZACYNTHUS,
TAPHIAN ISLANDS, ECHINADES, AND CYTHERA.

CORCYRA,

In Homer called *Scheria*, the country of the Phæacians, and subsequently colonized by the Dorians of Corinth. This island, remarkable for the refractory and factious disposition of its population, had colonized Epidamnus, or Dyrrachium, in Illyria, opposite Brundisium. This colony revolted from Corcyra and Corcyra from Corinth. The Spartans took part with Corinth, and the Athenians with Corcyra; out of this conflict arose the Peloponnesian war. The name of Corcyra in modern geography is *Corfu*.

LEUCADIA,

More properly called Leucas, with its promontory of Leucate, celebrated in antiquity for the *Lover's Leap*, first tried by Lesbian Sappho, was originally joined to the continent by an isthmus, which the Leucadians cut away during the Peloponnesian war. The modern name is *Santa Maura*.

ITHACA,

Six miles south of Leucas, is a small island, but important in the early fabulous history of Greece, as the kingdom of Ulysses, and the scene of the greater part of the Odyssey.

CEPHALLENIA.

The earliest name of this island was Samos, and its principal and oldest city was called *Sáme*. Its produce was wine, oil, and olives.

ZACYNTHUS,

Famous for her colony of Saguntum, at the mouth of the Iberus in Spain, the destruction of which by Hannibal, in violation of the treaty between Carthage and Rome, excited the second Punic war.

TAPHIAN OR TELEBŒAN ISLANDS,

A considerable group between Leucadia and the coast of Acarnania. Though very small, these islands are remarkable as the haunt of the boldest pirates and hardest maritime adventurers of the Homeric age. The principal one, which gave its name to the group, was Taphos, afterwards called Taphiussa.

ECHINADES,

A group of small islands frequently, mentioned in the poets, at the mouth of the Achelous. *Dulichium* is supposed to have been one of

them, and to have been submerged, according to a belief still entertained by the Greek sailors, that there is such a sunken island two miles from Cephallenia, extending seven miles. Others suppose that Oxææ, an island more to the west, is the Dulichium of the *Odyssey*. They have, for the most part, become joined to the main land by the alluvial deposits of the waters of the river.

CYTHERA,

South of the promontory of Malea, the extreme point of the Peloponnesus, a Spartan dependency, and governed by a magistrate sent thither annually from the city. Some mythologists relate that Venus at her birth emerged from the sea near this island, which was the first land that received her; the fable is by others referred to Cyprus.

ISLANDS OF THE SARONIC GULF.

SALAMIS,

Celebrated equally in poetry and history, was an Ionian island, lying opposite the Eleusinian coast. It was the birth place of the greater Ajax and of Solon, but derives its greatest celebrity from the great victory obtained near it by the confederated Greeks, over Xerxes and the Persians, B. C. 480.

ÆGINA

Was a Dorian colony, having been occupied by people of that race both from Crete and the Peloponnesus. The Æginetæ were distinguished in the Epic period as forming a part of the army of Diomed, and in the latter ages of history as having borne off the first prize of valour at the battle of Salamis. Their piracies were notorious; and the adventurous spirit in which they conducted them rendered Ægina the chief emporium of Greece. They also are said to have been the first coiners of silver money. During the Peloponnesian war, the Athenians expelled the whole population, and replaced them with some of their own citizens. They were reinstated by Lysander.

CYCLADES.

DELOS, MYCONOS, TENOS, ANDROS, CEOS, CYTHNOS, SERIPHUS, SIPHNIUS, CIMOLUS, MELOS, PAROS, NAXOS, SYROS, GYARUS.

DELOS,

Sacred to Apollo and Diana, from the belief that it had been a floating island till arrested by Neptune to receive Latona in her wanderings, and become the birth place of the Delian twins. From its sacred character, it was chosen by the Greeks as the safest place of deposit for their moneys levied during the Persian war. These and other funds,

however, were still placed there after the close of the contest. The Athenians, who had the direction and management of the treasury, used it for the improvement of their own city, the establishment of their temples, &c.

CEOS,

The birth place of the two greatest lyric poets of Greece, Simonides and Bacchylides was the most considerable of the Cyclades. It was an Ionian colony, peopled from Attica, from the coast of which it lay but five miles distant. Its inhabitants were the first who introduced elegance in female attire in place of the ancient simplicity. It was so much more populous than productive, that every man on reaching 60 years of age was compelled to swallow poison.

CYTHNOS

Was a colony of the Dryopes, a little south of Ceos.

SERIPHUS,

Also south of Ceos, was celebrated in mythology as the scene of the most remarkable exploit of Perseus, who converted the king Polydeuces and his principal subjects into stone by means of the head of Medusa. In the reign of the emperor Domitian, Seriphus was used as a place of confinement for prisoners of state.

SIPHNUS

Was colonized by the Ionians. At one period its revenue exceeded that of all the other islands; in the time of Strabo, however, its poverty had become a proverb.

CIMOLUS,

One of the least important of the Cyclades.

MELOS,

About midway between Cape Scyllæum in Argolis and the Dyctanæum in Crete. The Athenians reduced this island during the Peloponnesian war, put all the males to death, enslaved the women and children, and sent a colony of 500 of their own citizens to repeople the island.

PAROS,

During the Persian war, the most flourishing of the Cyclades. It sustained a siege of twenty-eight days against Miltiades, after the battle of Marathon; and his ill success in this enterprize, or his injustice in attempting it, was the cause of his ruin. The Parian marble was famous throughout Greece, but the greatest boast of the island was its having been the birth place of the poet Archilochus.

NAXOS,

The most considerable of the Cyclades, was twice as large as Paros. The failure of the expedition undertaken by the Persians against this island led to the revolt of the Ionian states, and ultimately to the Persian invasion of Greece. It had received an Ionian colony from

Athens, though at first peopled by Carians. Fable named it as the birth place of Bacchus, probably from the success with which the vine was there cultivated.

TENOS,

Called also HYDRUSSA, from the abundance of its springs.

ANDROS.

The Andrians having been compelled to join the armament of Xerxes, were called upon after the battle of Salamis to make atonement by payment of a large sum of money. This demand they declared themselves unable to comply with, as they were beset with two deities, Poverty and Want, who never quitted the island, and who opposed the payment of the required sum.

GYARUS,

Little more than a barren rock. It became, in the days of the empire, a place of banishment for criminals.

SPORADES.

The Greeks comprised under this name the numerous islands which lay scattered around the Cyclades, and those which lay towards Crete, and the coast of Asia Minor. The most celebrated was

THERA.

It was said in fable to have been formed from a clod of earth thrown from ship Argo, and was called at first CALLISTE.

AMORGOS.

The birth place of Simonides, the Iambic poet.

CARPATHUS,

Which gave its name to the Carpathian sea. It lay between Crete and Rhodes, being distant from the latter 50 miles.

CRETE.

This was, perhaps, of all the islands of Greece, the most famous. In poetry and mythology it is associated with the names of the father of the gods who was fabled to have been born there; Minos and the Minotour; Ariadne, Theseus and the labyrinth; Dædalus and Icarus. Its principal cities were *Cydonia*—*Gnossus*, the royal city of Minos, and the scene of the principal fables alluded to above. *Gortys*, or *Gortynia*—*Prasus*, near which was the celebrated Mount Dicte, the birth place of Jupiter, with the Dictæan cave, where he was nursed in his infancy, and fed miraculously on bees;—*Lyctus*, one of the most considerable places in the island.

EUBŒA.

The earliest inhabitants of this island were called Abantes, by which name alone they are mentioned in Homer. Before the time of the

Peloponnesian war, the whole island was reduced to acknowledge the supremacy of Athens. Though frequently in revolt to recover their independence, the Eubœans never succeeded in casting off the Athenian yoke till the twenty-first year of the Peloponnesian war, when, by the assistance of the Spartans under Hegesandridas, they gained an important victory of the Athenian fleet, and subsequently recovered their liberty. The principal cities of this island were *Histiæa*, afterwards *Oreus*, *Chalcis*, and *Eretria*.

EUBŒAN ISLANDS.

SCYROS.

The first inhabitants of this island were Dolopians, who were afterwards expelled by the Athenians. It was here that Theseus was said to have died, or to have been killed by falling or being thrown from a precipice: and here too Achilles was concealed by his mother to prevent the fulfilment of the prediction of his early death, in case he should accompany the Greeks to Troy.

SCIATHUS, SCOPELOS and HALONNESUS.

THRACIAN ISLANDS.

THASOS.

This island derived immense wealth from its silver mines, the revenues amounting at times to three hundred talents. The inhabitants retained the old Cabiric worship.

SAMOTHRACE.

The chief celebrity of this island arises from the mysteries of the Cybele and her Corybantes, which were said to have originated here. These were connected with the worship of the Cabiric, which also prevailed, if it did not originate, among the Samothracians.

LEMNOS.

This island owes its note rather to poetry and fable than to its historical importance. Vulcan was called the Lemnian God from the circumstance of his having been received in his fall from heaven by the Sintians. The story of Jason, Hypsipyle and the Lemnian women, connected with the legend of the Argonautic expedition, gives still greater poetical celebrity to the island.

IMBROS,

Like Lemnos was a seat of the early Pelasgi, and remarkable for the Cabiric rites performed there with peculiar solemnity.

ASIATIC GREEK ISLANDS.

TENEDOS,

A small but important island at the mouth of the Hellespont. Its connexion with the events of the Trojan war gives it its greatest celebrity, although it is not without its historical associations in the periods of more authentic history.

LESBOS.

The chief city of this island was the capital of all the Ionic cities of Asia. It was remarkable for the number of illustrious names associated with it. Alcæus, Sappho, Phaon, and Pittacus, one of the seven sages of Greece, were natives of Lesbos. The dominant people were Dorians.

CHIOS,

The modern *Scio*, celebrated for its capacious harbour, in which a hundred vessels could ride at anchor. The wine of Chios was in high repute. Its population was Ionian.

SAMOS,

Lying off the Ionian coast. It was the fabled birth place of Juno, whose worship was celebrated by the Samians with peculiar solemnity. Her temple in the city of Samos was considered by Herodotus as one of the finest works of Grecian architecture, and by him ranked with that of Diana of Ephesus. It is here that the first statues were cast in bronze; but the greatest boast of Samos was its having been the birth place of Pythagoras, who was expelled thence by the tyrant Polycrates.

ICARIA.

This was an island of some extent, lying west of Samos, and the fabulous origin of its name is referred to the story of Dædalus and Icarus, from which that of the circumjacent sea was also derived. The Samians used this island for pasturing their cattle.

PATMOS,

A small island west of Icaria, which owes all its celebrity to the circumstance of its having been the place of banishment of St. John, who wrote there his apocalypse.

CALYDNÆ ISLANDS,

A small group of the coast of Caria, celebrated for their honey. The principal of these was CALYMNA. They are all spoken of by Herodotus as subject to Artimisia.

COS,

A Doric island, called also, more anciently, MEROPIS. Hippocrates and Apelles were natives of this island. Its productions were the whetstone, which takes its name in many languages from that of the island, and a peculiar kind of transparent silk, much worn at Rome, and severely inveighed against by Juvenal.

RHODES,

Famed for its colossus, which was considered one of the seven wonders of the world. The Rhodians were a Doric people, but took little interest in the affairs of their brother Greeks; and in the wars of their countrymen with the Romans they espoused the cause of the latter. The Rhodians worshipped as their tutelary deity the sun, in whose honour the colossus was erected.

CYPRUS.

This large island was south of Cilicia and west of Syria. From PAPHOS, the city of Venus, it was sometimes called PAPHIA, and from Salamis, the most important place in the island, said to have been founded by Teucer, and from him to have received the name of Salamis, in honour of his native island, it was also called Salaminia. The character of the people is said to have been conformable to that of their peculiar worship; and the term Cyprian has become a synonyme of dissoluteness and effeminacy. It was here that Cymon died during the siege of Citium, as he was on his Egyptian expedition. In the fortunes of Egypt those of Cyprus were for the most part involved, as she may be considered a dependency of that country, until, as such, she fell under the Persian dominion.

ISLANDS OF THE MEDITERRANEAN.

BALEARES,

Consisting of *Majorca* and *Minorca*, to which *Ivica* was sometimes added. They lay off the coast of Spain, and received the name of Baleares from a Greek word that signifies *to cast*, because the inhabitants were most expert slingers, and used the sling as their principal weapon. Their modern names are derived from the adjective *Major* and *Minor*, which distinguished the greater from the lesser Balearis.

CORSICA, OR CYRNUIS,

As it was called by the Greeks, was a rude and uncultivated island during all the period of its occupation by the Romans, and was used by them occasionally as a place of banishment for state criminals. It was here that Seneca lived in exile during the reign of the emperor Claudius.

SARDINIA,

Called also by the Greeks *Ichnusa*, from the shape of its coast. It was equally remarkable for the rude independence of its inhabitants, the ruggedness of its surface, and the fertility of its soil. This island produced a singular herb, which, on being eaten, occasioned spasms of the face, while the patient died as if with a laugh upon his lips; hence the expression *sardonic laughter*. Iberians were perhaps the first occupants of Sardinia, but successive colonies and partial conquests gave it afterwards to the Carthaginians, the Greeks, and the Romans.

Yet the rugged mountaineers of the interior may be said never to have been fully subdued, even by the conquerors of the world.

ILVA,

In modern geography *Elba*.

ÆNARIA,

The modern *Ischia*.

CAPREÆ,

Off the coast of Campania, famous as the scene of the dissolute enjoyments of Tiberius, who erected there twelve costly villas, designated by the names of the twelve greater gods. It is at present remarkable for the quantities of quails caught in it, the number varying per annum from 12 to 60,000.

LIPARA.

The largest of the ten Æolian islands. These islands, which lay off the Bruttian coast, and north of Sicily, derived their name of *Æolian* from having been the residence of the fabled Æolus, king of the winds. They were also called *Vulcaniæ*, from their volcanic character. One only, however, still retains an active volcano; this is *Stromboli*, the ancient *Strongyle*.

SICILY.

This greatest island of the Mediterranean contained a number of cities which figured largely in ancient history. It is separated from the coast of Italy by the Straits of Messina, which are in the narrowest part but two miles wide. Its original inhabitants were the Sicels, to whom succeeded the Sicanians. Very little remained, however, of their history, even in the time of the Greeks and Romans; the principal cities having been founded afterwards by Phœnicians, Greeks, Carthaginians, and Romans. The fertility of this island caused it to be looked upon as the granary of Rome. In Homer and the ante-historic traditions, the Cyclopes and Læstrigons were the earliest inhabitants of this island. The volcano of Ætna most probably furnished the basis of the greater part of the fables and wonders of Sicily in the early poetry of Greece. Sicily was sometimes called Trinakia and Trinacria, from the three promontories at its points—Pelorum, Lilybæum, and Pachynum. Among the many illustrious cities of this island, we may particularize Agrigentum and Syracuse.

MELITA,

Or *Malta*, an important island about 60 miles south-east of Sicily.

ASIA MINOR,

Included all that was termed Asia by the Romans and apostles. It was divided into Mysia, Lydia, Caria in the west; settled and civilized by colonies from Æolia, Ionia and Doris; Lycia, Pamphylia and Cilicia in the south; Pontus, Paphlagonia and Bithynia in the north; Cappadocia, Phrygia and Pisidia in the centre.

The above countries were settled by Japhet and his descendants.

Divisions with principal Cities.

Cappadocia, including Pontus—Trapezus, Amísus.

Galatia, or Gallogræcia, including Paphlagonia, Sinópe, Ancyra.

Bithynia—Heracléa, Nicomedia, Nicæa, or Nice, Prusa.

Mysia—Abydos, Ilyium, or Troy, Pergamus.

Lydia—Smyrna, Clazómene, Sardis, Ephesus, Thyatíra.

Caria—Milétus, Halicarnassus.

Lycia—Myra.

Pisidia, including Pamphylia, Aspendus.

Cilicia—Tarsus, Issus.

PONTUS.

CITIES.—*Trapézus*, now Trebísond, founded by a colony from Sinópe. In the ages of the lower empire it became the capital of the dynasty founded by Alexis Comnenes, and remained independent of the Greek empire ever after. It was the most eastern city upon the coast.

Cérasus, some distance west of Trapézus. Cherries were first introduced into Europe from this place, whence they took their name, 680 B. C.

Amísus, the largest city of Pontus, was situated upon the gulf which takes its name from it, at the mouth of the Halys.

Amasea—*Comana*. Amasea, the birth place of Mithridates the Great, and Strabo the geographer.

CAPPADOCIA.

CITIES.—*Comana*, famous for the great temple of Bellona, served by upwards of 6000 ministers.

Mazaca, afterwards called Caesarea ad Argæum, the capital of Cappadocia.

Tyana, the birth place of Apollonius, the famous impostor and Pythagorean, whose miracles, by the opponents of Christianity, have been compared with those of the Saviour.

PAPHLAGONIA.

CITIES.—*Sinópe*. A colony from Miletus; the most important place, in a commercial point of view, on the shores of the Euxine. The cynic Diogenes was born in this city. *Amastris*.

GALATIA.

CITIES.—*Ancyra*—*Pessinus*, a city of extremely remote origin, and

famous for the worship of Cybles, which was celebrated there with peculiar rites.

BITHYNIA.

CITIES.—*Heraclea*, founded by Doric colonists from Megara.

Prusa—*Chalcedon*. This city was founded a short time before Byzantium, and was called by Megabyzus, a Persian satrap, the *city of the blind*, because its inhabitants, in the selection of the site, chose this in preference to the more advantageous situation upon the opposite coast, where Byzantium was afterwards founded.

Nicomedia, at the head of the gulf which takes its name from the early town of Astacus. As Nicomedia was on the direct route from Constantinople to the more eastern parts of the empire, it became frequently the residence of those emperors who conducted in person the military operations in the East. It was said at one time to be the fifth city in the world for magnitude, and the first for beauty.

Nicæa, at one time the capital of Bythnia, having for a period superseded Nicomedia. It was here that the first part of the creed, thence called the *Nicene*, was adopted, in the time of Constantine.

MYSIA.

CITIES.—*Cyzicus*, built on a peninsula, or, according to Strabo and Pliny, on an island in the Propontis, on the northern shore of Mysia. It flourished greatly through commerce; so much so, that Florus called it the *Rome of Asia*.

Adrastia—*Lampsacus*—*Ilium* or *Troy*.

Adramyttium—*Pergamus*, the capital of a kingdom of the same name, founded B. C. 282. Its last king, Attalus Philomator, bequeathed it to the Roman people, B. C. 143. In this place parchment was first invented, and hence its name.

Charta—*Pergamena*. Its famous library, containing upwards of 200,000 volumes, was transferred by Cleopatra to Egypt. Apollodorus the mythologist, and Galen, were natives of this place.

LYDIA.

CITIES.—*Cuma*, a city proverbial for the remarkable stupidity of its inhabitants. Ephorus and Hesiod, however, were Cumæans.

Phocæa, one of the most important commercial places of Asia Minor, before the conquest of Lydia by Cyrus. When pressed by Harpagus, one of the generals of the conqueror, the Phocæans put their wives and children on board of their galleys, and abandoned their city to the Persians. A part of them, however, returned, but the remainder continued their voyage, until after various vicissitudes, they finally established themselves on the coast of Gaul, where they founded the city of Massilia, now Marseilles.

Clazomene. The first city of this name stood on the main land west of Smyrna; but on the fall of Cræsus, terrified at the progress of the Persian arms, the inhabitants, who were Ionians, removed to a neighbouring island, where they rebuilt their city. In the time of Alexander it was joined to the main land by a causeway, a part of which still remains. It was the birth place of Anaxagoras.

Smyrna, one of the few cities of Asia Minor which retains in modern times some degree of its ancient importance.

Teos, the birth place of Anacreon. The people of this island founded the city of Abdera in Thrace, under circumstances similar to those by which the Phocaens were driven from their country.

Lebedus, one of the twelve cities of Ionia.

Thyatira—*Sardis*, the city of Cræsus and capital of Lydia.

CARIA.

CITIES.—*Myndus*, on the gulf of Iassus. The punishment of a Myndian captain by the Admiral of the Persian fleet destined against Naxos, produced the failure of that expedition, the revolt of the Ionians, and ultimately the invasion of Greece by the arms of Darius.

Halicarnassus, the city of Artemisia, and the birth place of Herodotus and Dionysius the historians. It was originally one of the Doric confederacy of six states, called the *Hexapolis*. On the exclusion of Halicarnassus, this confederacy was called the *Pentapolis*. A second Artemisia caused the erection of the celebrated mausoleum in memory of her husband Mausolus. The city was razed to the earth by Alexander in consequence of its resolute resistance to his arms.

Cnidus, the capital of the Dorians of Asia. The whole Triopian peninsula belonged to the Cnidians; and when they were threatened by the Persians under Harpagus, they consulted the oracle upon the expedient of separating themselves from the main land by cutting through the isthmus. The Pythian answered, that "if Jupiter had wished it to be an island, he would have made it so." The city then surrendered to the Persians. The great victory of Conon over the Peloponnesian fleet, which transferred the empire of the sea again to the Athenians, was fought off the coast of Cnidus.

Mylasa, celebrated for the great number of its temples in proportion to its population. It is said that the musician Stratoniceus, placing himself in the forum, and observing this disproportion, began his recitation and performance by exclaiming *Hear, oh ye temples!*

Alabanda. This town was so situated among hills as to suggest the idea of an ass with a pack saddle; whence a certain orator, alluding to the number of scorpions which abounded in its vicinity, called it *an ass laden with scorpions*. It was noted for the voluptuousness of its inhabitants, and the number of its singing women.

PHRYGIA AND LYCAONIA.

CITIES.—*Ipsus*, celebrated for the great battle fought in its plains by the forces of Cassander, Lysimachus, Ptolemy, and Seleucus, against Antigonus and his son Demetrius.

Laodicæa—*Colossæ*—*Celænæ*, a very ancient city, famous in fable for the story of Marsyas and the legend of Midas.

Apamea, built by Antiochus Soter, who removed thither the inhabitants of Celænæ. In the time of Strabo, it was the largest town of Phrygia, yielding in commercial importance to Ephesus alone, of all the cities of peninsular Asia.

Iconium, the principal city of Lycaonia, more celebrated in the mid-

dle ages than in antiquity. It became the capital of a Turkish empire, whose princes were called sultans of Iconium.

ISAURIA,

Frequently considered as a part of Lycaonia; its principal city bore the name of *Isaura*.

LYCIA.

CITIES.—*Telmissus*, famous for the skill of its augurs.

Pinara—*Xanthus*. The inhabitants of this place were illustrious for their dauntless courage, having twice sacrificed themselves to avoid falling into the hands of the enemy. The first time was on the invasion of Lycia by Harpagus, when they buried themselves under the ruins of their walls and temples; the second, when their town was invested by Brutus, and being unable to break his lines, they cast themselves with their wives and children into the flames.

Patara—*Olympus*, one of the six chief communities of Lycia. It was in the neighbourhood of the celebrated Solymæan mountains, of which the Chimærea was one.

Phaselis, famous for its manufacture of rose perfume.

PAMPHYLIA.

CITIES.—*Attalia*—*Aspendus*, a noted haunt of the Asiatic pirates.

PISIDIA.

CITIES.—*Termessus*—*Selge*. The inhabitants of this place were remarkable for their love of liberty, and for their success in defending it against all the powers which successively held dominion in the peninsula.

CILICIA.

CITIES.—*Coracesium*—*Anchiale*, which is said to have owed its foundation to the Assyrian Sardanapalus, who commemorated the event in the famous inscription to the following effect: "Sardanapalus, the son of Anacyndarayes, erected in one day the cities of Anchiale and Tarsus: stranger, eat, drink and be merry! the rest is not worth the snap of a finger."

Tarsus, the metropolis of Cilicia, the birth place of the apostle Paul, and one of the most important towns of Asia Minor.

Issus, at the head of the gulf which bears its name. It was here that Alexander gained his second great victory over Darius and the Persians.

CANAAN.

This country was called in ancient times the *Land of Canaan*, from Canaan the son of Ham; the *Land of Promise*, or Promised Land, from its being promised to the descendants of Abraham; the *Land of Israel*, from the Israelites; *Judah* and *Israel*, after the kingdoms were divided. Since the Christian era it is commonly designated by the

name of *Judea*, from Judah, the principal of the twelve tribes; *Palestine*, from the Philistines, who inhabited the southwest part of it; and the *Holy Land*, especially when mentioned in connection with the crusades.

Previous to the removal of Abraham into this country, it was possessed by the Canaanites, a people notorious for their idolatry and wickedness. After its conquest by the Israelites, it was divided among the twelve tribes by lot. Moses conquered the country east of the Jordan, and apportioned it to Reuben, Gad, and the half tribe of Manasseh. Joshua conquered the country west of the Jordan, and it was apportioned among the remaining tribes.

Benjamin, Judah, Simeon, Dan, in the south, and hence sometimes called South Israel.

Ephraim, Manasseh, half tribe in the centre, *Issachar, Zebulon, Naphtali, Asher*, in the north. These constituted North Israel.

At the birth of our Saviour, Palestine was divided into four parts, *Judea*, south; *Samaria*, centre; *Galilee*, north; *Perea*, east.

COUNTRIES MENTIONED IN THE PENTATEUCH.

Canaan, Wilderness. Egypt.

Midian, Amalek, Edom, south of Canaan.

Midian 2nd, Moab, Ammon, east of Canaan.

Philistia and Phœnicia, on the west coast.

CITIES OF JUDEA.

BENJAMIN.—*Bethel, Ai, Jericho, Gilgal, Gibeah, Gibeon, Ramah, Bethany, Jerusalem*, the capital on the boundary line between *Benjamin* and *Judea*.

JUDAH.—*Hebron, Bethlehem, Adullam, Engedi, Tekoah*.

SIMEON.—*Beersheba, Gaza, Ascalon*.

DAN.—*Gath, Ashdod, Ekron*.

EPHRAIM.—*Samaria, Shechem, Shiloh, Timnath-serah, Joppa*.

MANASSEH.—*Tirzah, Jez-re-el, Megiddo, Cesarea*.

ISSACHAR.—*Shunem, Nain*.

ZEBULON.—*Gath-he-pha, Nazareth, Cana, Tiberias*.

NAPHTALI.—*Dan, Kadesh, Hazor, Bethsaida, Capernaum*.

ASHER.—*Ace, Acre, or Ptolomais, Tyre, Sidon, Sarepta*.

REUBEN.—*Bezer, Heshbon, Bethabara*.

GAD.—*Ramoth-Gilead, Mahanaim, Succoth*.

MANASSEH.—*Edrei, Gadara, Gergesi, Golan, Geshuri*.

Five cities of the Plain.—*Sodom, Gomorrah, Admah, Zeboim and Zoar*.

Five cities of the Philistines.—*Gaza, Ascalon, Gath, Ashdod and Ekron*.

Six cities of Refuge.—Three west of Jordan, *Hebron, Shechem, Kedesh*.

Three east, *Bezer, Ramoth-Gilead, Golan*.

RIVERS OF JUDEA.

Arnon, Jobbok, Cedron, or Kedron, Besor, Sorek, Kishon, Belus.

MOUNTAINS.

West of the Jordan.—*Lebanon, Anti Lebanon, Hernan, Carmel Tabor, Mountains of Ephraim, Israel, Ebal and Gilboa.*

East of the Jordan.—*Bashan, Gilead, Abarim, Pisgah, Nebo.*

South of Palestine.—*Seir and Hor.*

Four hills on which Jerusalem was built.—*Zion, Moriah, Acra, and Bezeta.*

Four near the city.—*Mount of Olives, or Olivet, Calvary, Gihon and Mountain of Offence.*

SEAS, OR LAKES.

Dead Sea, or Lake Asphaltites, Sea of Tiberias, or Galilee, or Lake of Gennesareth.

OUTLINE OF HISTORY,

FROM THE

CREATION OF THE WORLD TO A.M. 3500.

Outline of Hebrew History.

PATRIARCHS.

ADAM,	LAMECH.	REU.
SETH,	—	—
ENOS.	NOAH.	SERUG,
—	—	NAHOR,
CAINAN,	SHEM,	TERAH.
MAHALALEEL,	ARPHAXAD,	—
JARED.	SELAH.	ABRAHAM,
—	—	ISAAC, and
ENOCH,	EBER,	JACOB.
METHUSALEH,	PELEG,	—

THE creation was completed in six days ; and the fall of man, and his expulsion from the garden of Eden, probably happened soon after

129 Cain killed Abel, in the year of the world 129. The birth
Death of Abel. of Seth the next year, supplied, in the patriarchal line, the place of Abel, who was dead, and of Cain, who was rejected.

Cain, accursed of God for his crime, separated from his brother and went into the land of Nod, east of the Euphrates, where he built several cities, and became the father of an impious race of mortals, called the sons of men, little noticed in the Scriptures.

Enoch, Irad, Mehujael, Methusael, and Lamech, lineally descended from Cain—Lamech had three sons: Jabal, the father of herdsmen; Jubal, inventor of the harp and organ; Tubalcain, the first artificer in brass and iron.

THE DISPERSION AT THE BIRTH OF PELEG.

The most received opinion on this subject is, that at the birth of
1756 Peleg, 100 years after the flood, the sons of Noah were
Dispersion. dispersed abroad and settled in different countries, as follows :—

Japheth and his sons peopled Asia Minor, Europe, and the islands. Japheth's sons were Gomer, Javan, Madai, Magog, Meshech, Tubal, Tiras.

Of Shem's sons, *Aram* settled Aram or Syria, and *Padan-aram* or Mesopotamia.

Asshur settled Assyria.

Arphaxad, Chaldea or Shinar; *Elam* settled Elam or Persia.

Of Ham's sons, *Cush* settled *Arabia*, called *Ethiopia* in Genesis.

Misraim settled *Egypt*, and from him sprang the *Philistines*.

Canaan settled the land of *Canaan*.

The different nations or tribes of Canaanites took their names from the eleven sons of Canaan, viz: the Amorites, Hittites, Sinites, Jebusites, Arvadites, Hivites, Sidonians, Hamathites, &c.

Terah descended through several generations from Arphaxad, son of Shem, oppressed, perhaps, by the ambitious intrusion and extreme idolatry of Ham's posterity, removed with his family from Chaldea to Haran, in the north part of Mesopotamia, or Padan-aram. In 2083,

2083

Calling of
Abraham.

Terah died; and, in the same year, God having chosen Terah's son Abraham, aged seventy-five, to be the father of a peculiar people and holy nation, called or commanded him to leave Haran and go to Canaan, promising him a numerous posterity, who should inherit that land. Abraham left his brother Nahor at Haran, whose son Bethuel was father of Laban and Rebecca.

In the second year after the calling, Abraham, during a famine in Canaan, went to Egypt with his whole family, where he passed his wife Sarah for his sister, and had the mortification to see her taken from him by the king, who restored her on finding she was his wife. Soon after their return to Bethel, in Canaan, Abraham, and his kinsman Lot, separated, by Abraham's pacific proposal, on account of a strife between their herdsmen, who could not find sufficient pasture for the numerous flocks of both: Lot went to Sodom, in the vale of Siddim; Abraham to Mamre or Hebron, west of the vale of Siddim. In

the seventh year, 2090, Chedorlaomer, king of Elam or Persia, joined with three other kings, invaded the Promised Land. After overthrowing the gigantic Rephaims, Zuzims, and Emims, east of Jordan, and the Horites, in Mount Seir, south of Canaan, they turned to the north, smote the Amorites, and entered the vale of Siddim, where they vanquished the five kings of Sodom, Gomorrah, Admah, Zeboim, Zoar or Bela; took great booty, and Lot among other prisoners. Abraham, with his numerous servants, pursued the victorious enemy, by Dan or Laish, to Hobah, west of Damascus, surprised and defeated them; recovered Lot and all the spoils, which he scrupulously restored to the kings of Sodom, &c. Melchisedek met and blessed Abraham on his return. In Gen. 15, 16, 17, we have an account of the repeated promises that God made to Abraham, of an heir, and of the sure inheritance of the

Chedorlaomer's invasion of the Promised Land.

Promised Land by his numerous posterity. The birth of Ishmael, eleven years after the calling, is recorded in Gen. 16. In the twenty-fourth year, after seasonable warning given by God's angels to Abraham and Lot, Sodom and Gomorrah were destroyed, for the most horrible and unnatural sins, by fire and brimstone from heaven; upon which the vale of Siddim seems to have been changed into a sea, called the Dead, or Salt

Ishmael.

Destruction
of Sodom &
Gomorrah.

Sea. Lot and his two daughters fled to the mountains, and from them incestuously descended the Moabites and Ammonites, east of the Dead Sea and Jordan. Abraham went to Gerar, in the land of the Philistines, where Isaac was born in 2108, the next year after the destruction of Sodom and Gomorrah; Abraham aged 100, Sarah 90, Ishmael 14. By permission of Abimelech, the king, Abraham lived many years at Beersheba, in the land of the Philistines.

Ishmael, aged 19, was cast out into the wilderness of Paran, south of Canaan, where his descendants, the Ishmaelites, afterward dwelt.

Offering of Isaac. Twenty years after that event, Abraham, still living at Beersheba, by God's command, went three days' journey to Mount

Moriah, to offer his son Isaac, aged 25, for a burnt-offering; but, after he had stretched out his hand to slay his son, God, satisfied with his wonderful faith and obedience, bid him spare Isaac, and sacrifice a ram in his stead.

After Abraham had returned to Mamre or Hebron, Sarah died, aged 127, and was buried in the cave of Machpelah, which Abraham bought of Ephron, the Hittite. Three years after the death of Sarah, Abraham sent his servant to Haran, in Mesopotamia, who brought Rebecca to Mamre, where she married her cousin Isaac.

Jacob and Esau. Two years after the marriage of Isaac, Abraham married Keturah, by whom he had Midian, father of the Midianites, east of the Dead Sea. In 2168, Jacob and Esau were born; Isaac, their father, aged 60. Esau was a cunning hunter, a man of the field; but Jacob was a plain man, dwelling in tents.

Abraham dies. 2183, Abraham died, aged 175, and was buried in the cave of Machpelah, by his sons Isaac and Ishmael.

When Jacob and Esau were 31 years old, Esau, coming from the field faint and weary, sold his birthright to Jacob for red pottage. Isaac went to dwell at Beersheba, where he remained till after the marriage of Jacob. Esau gave offence to his father and mother by marrying the daughters of the Hittites.

Isaac loved Esau because he did eat of his venison; but Rebecca loved Jacob; and he, instructed by his partial mother, fraudulently obtained the blessing which Isaac had promised to bestow upon

Jacob obtains the blessing. Esau on his return from the field with venison. Rebecca then advised Jacob to flee and avoid the rage of Esau; and, at her entreaty, Isaac consented to let him go to Haran to marry one of his cousins. The fraud and falsehood of Jacob drove him from his father's house, a fugitive, with nothing but his staff, and destitute, for the time, of all earthly property that Esau's birthright or Isaac's blessing could confer; yet the blessing undesignedly conferred upon him by Isaac, was ratified by Heaven. Sleeping at Luz or Bethel, Jacob saw, in a dream, a ladder reaching to heaven, and angels ascending and descending upon it; and God stood above the ladder, and confirmed to Jacob, in terms of peculiar benignity and magnificence, all the promises before made to Abraham and Isaac. Isaac still lived at Beersheba.

Twenty years Jacob lived at Haran, and served his unprincipled and miserly uncle Laban; seven years for Leah, who was deceitfully given

to him instead of Rachael, whom he loved; seven years more for Rachael. Joseph, the first son of Rachael, was born at the end of the fourteen years. By a new agreement, Jacob served the last six years; and, during this period, notwithstanding the craft and injustice of Laban, his father-in-law and uncle, Jacob became rich in cattle and flocks, with the most evident sanction of Providence. Eleven sons and one daughter were born to him during his twenty years' residence at Haran. Twenty years after, fleeing from the resentment of his angry and injured brother, Jacob secretly left Haran, taking with him his wives, children, and flocks. On his way towards Jordan he was so happy as to appease the wrath of Laban, who pursued him to Mount Gilead; and soon after, by presents and kindness, he disarmed the resentment of his brother Esau, who had filled Jacob's breast with alarm by crossing the Jordan with 400 men to meet him. Shortly before this interview with Esau, Jacob received the name of Israel in wrestling with an angel. After dismissing Esau, he crossed the Jordan, and resided at Shechem.

The following events happened during the next ten years, viz:—The sudden departure of Jacob from Shechem, in consequence of the perfidious cruelty of Simeon and Levi to the Shechemites, to avenge their sister Dinah; the birth of Benjamin, and death of Rachael, near Bethlehem; the incestuous conduct of Reuben; and the affair of Judah and Tamar, the ancestors of Boaz, from whom descended Jesse, the father of David, and, ultimately, Jesus Christ. In 2275,

Joseph sold into Egypt. Joseph was sold by his brethren to Midianitish or Ishmaelitish merchants, who carried him into Egypt, and there sold him to Potiphar, captain of Pharaoh's guards.

Death of Isaac. In 2288, Isaac died, aged 188, and was buried in the cave of Machpelah, by his sons Jacob and Esau. Soon after, Esau removed to Mount Seir or Mount Hor, south of Canaan, and from him descended the Edomites and Amalekites.—See 1 Chronicles, 1st chapter, 35th and 36th verses. In the year of Isaac's death, Joseph, ten years after he was sold, was released from prison, where he had been two years unjustly confined, and made governor of all Egypt, in consequence of interpreting Pharaoh's two dreams.

Removal into Egypt. In 2298, Jacob's whole family, consisting of seventy persons, male and female, went into Egypt by the invitation of Joseph, and settled there under his protection.—See Gen., from the 39th to the 50th chapter, for the history of Joseph, of which no adequate abridgment could be made, and with which almost every child is acquainted.

Death of Jacob. In 2315, after having lived in Egypt seventeen years, Jacob died, aged 147, and was carried with great pomp into Canaan by his son Joseph, and buried in the cave of Machpelah, at Hebron.

Joseph had two sons, Ephraim and Manasseh, whom Jacob, in his last moments, adopted as his own. He survived his father fifty-four years, and died, aged 110: having, like his father, predicted the return of his brethren into the Promised Land, and charged them to carry his bones with them. Here ends the book of Genesis, and the book of Exodus commences.

Death of Joseph.

After the death of Joseph, the children of Israel became very numerous, and suffered every species of cruelty and oppression from the jealous tyranny of the kings of Egypt. Moses, their deliverer,

Moses. was born in 2430, three years after his elder brother Aaron.

At that time, an existing decree of the king of Egypt, doomed every new-born son of a Hebrew to be cast into the river, to prevent the dreaded increase of this people. The mother of Moses, hoping to save the life of her infant son, after concealing him three months, exposed him by the river's brink, in an ark of bull-rushes; the daughter of Pharaoh, the king, found the ark, saved the child, and had him educated as her own son. Moses was descended from Jacob, through Levi, Kohath, and Amram, the father of Moses and Aaron.

In 2473, Moses, aged 40, killed an Egyptian whom he saw contending with a Hebrew; and, to avoid the resentment of Pharaoh, he fled to Midian, east of the Red Sea, where he married Zipporah, daughter of Jethro, priest of Midian. Zipporah bore him two sons, Gershom and Eleazer. After Moses had been forty

years with Jethro, God appeared to him in a burning bush, at Mount Horeb, and commanded him to return to Egypt, and deliver Israel from bondage. He complied: his brother

Aaron met him in the wilderness, and the two brothers gave such proofs of their mission, particularly by the ten plagues which they inflicted on the Egyptians, that Pharaoh finally consented to let Israel go and sacrifice, which was all the favour that Moses and Aaron were enjoined to demand of the king. The

ten plagues—the waters of Egypt turned into blood; the land covered with frogs; the dust turned into lice; grievous swarms of flies sent into the houses; the cattle killed with murrain; man and beast afflicted with biles; destructive hail sent, mingled with fire; clouds of devouring locusts darken the whole land; thick darkness for three days; all the first-born of Egypt killed both of man and beast. On

this occasion the *Passover* was instituted—a feast or ordinance designed to commemorate God's peculiar favour to his people in *passing-over* their houses, and sparing their first-born, when he killed all the first-born of Egypt.

When the king found that the people were fleeing from Egypt altogether, he pursued them; but the Red Sea, which opened to give Israel a passage, closed upon the pursuing host of Pharaoh, and drowned them. The children of Israel were conducted in their journey by a pillar of cloud by day, and a pillar of fire by night. Having crossed the Red Sea, and sung a song of praise to God, they journeyed to Marah, where Moses sweetened the bitter water by casting a tree into it; thence, by Elim to Zin, where quails and manna were sent to appease the hunger and murmurs of the people; thence to Rephidim, where Moses struck the rock of Horeb, and drew water from it for his ever-murmuring brethren, and where Joshua defeated the cowardly-assailing Amalekites; thence, in the third month after *exodus* or departure, to Sinai, where God published his laws and commandments, in a terrible voice, from the smoking top of the burning mount.

Here Moses, after spending forty days with God on the mount, received from him the two tables of the law in stone; while the people at the foot of the mount fell into gross idolatry, by

Moses forty days on the mount.

2513
Passage of the Red Sea.

The burning bush.

The ten plagues.

making and worshipping a golden calf, for which 3000 were put to death by the command of Moses, on his return. Here also the priesthood was established in the family of Aaron; and the whole family of Levi was set apart for the service of religion; the moveable tabernacle, the ark, and all their appurtenances, were made here. By the advice of Jethro, who came here to meet Moses, 70 elders were appointed to assist in judging the people—here the people were numbered, and found to be 600,000, that were males, twenty years old and upwards, besides Levites. The book of Exodus ends with the account of setting up the tabernacle. Leviticus contains the Levitical laws, or laws of Moses; Numbers commences with an account of numbering the people, and contains some laws, and considerable history; Deuteronomy gives a repetition of many laws, and relates the last transactions and death of Moses.

On the 20th of the 2d month, of the 2d year after exodus or departure out of Egypt, the people set off to pursue their journey toward the Promised Land. At Taberah, the fire of the Lord consumed many of the people, because they murmured. At Kibroth-hattaavah, God sent quails in wrath, and a plague destroyed great numbers of the people, because they murmured. At Hazeroth, God's anger was kindled against Aaron and Miriam, for murmuring against their brother Moses. From Kadesh, Moses sent twelve men to examine the land of Canaan, who, except Caleb and Joshua, made an unfavourable report, calculated to terrify and dishearten their brethren; a mutiny ensued in the camp of Israel, and the rebellious Hebrews threatened to choose a captain to conduct them back to Egyptian servitude; which provoked God to denounce that all who were twenty years old, and upwards, should die in the wilderness; that not one of them should enter the Promised Land, except Caleb and Joshua. Some of the people who went to attack the Canaanites, and enter the land, in defiance of God's commands, were smitten and discomfited. About two years had now elapsed since the exodus; and, from this time, very little is recorded of this seditious and ungrateful people for the space of thirty-seven years, till the last year of Moses. In this interval we must place the wicked and fatal rebellion of Korah, Dathan, and Abiram, who were swallowed up by the earth before the door of the tabernacle. On this occasion, God gave a signal sanction to the authority of Aaron, by causing his rod only, out of the twelve rods laid up in the tabernacle, to blossom and bear fruit.

At Meribah, in the last year of Moses, he and Aaron incurred God's displeasure by their impatient and unadvised manner of speaking to the people, when God commanded them to draw water from the rock for the murmuring host. For this offence Moses and Aaron were both excluded from entering the Promised Land.—See Numbers 20, and Psalms 106, 32d and 33d verses. Miriam, the sister of Moses, died shortly before that event; Aaron died soon after it at Mount Hor, and his son Eleazer succeeded to the priesthood. Perhaps the place cannot be fixed where Moses made the brazen serpent to cure those who, for their seditious murmurs, had been mortally bitten by fiery serpents. After compassing Edom and Moab, through which a passage was denied them, the children of Israel at last arrived and encamped in the plains of Moab, east of Jordan. Here Israel conquered the countries

of Sihon, king of the Amorites, and of Og, king of Bashan or Gilead ; and Moses divided the conquered territories among the tribes of Reuben and Gad, and the half tribe of Manasseh. He also caused 12,000

Balaam. men to ravage and lay waste Moab, whose daughters, by the advice of Balaam, the soothsayer, had corrupted the sons of Israel. Balaam had been called from Mesopotamia, to curse Israel, with offers of great reward by Balak, king of Moab and Midian ; but, overruled by God, he blessed Israel altogether, and prophesied of their prosperity and of their future dominion over the nations. Balaam was slain with the kings of Midian in this war.

Forty years having now elapsed since the exodus, Moses, after repeating many laws ; inculcating, with paternal solicitude, his last advice and parting admonitions, and blessing each tribe except that of Simeon, went, by God's command, to the top of Pisgah, where he died, having thence viewed the land which he was not permitted to enter with his brethren. He was 120 years of age ; yet his eye was not dim, nor his natural force abated. Here ends the Pentateuch, or five

Book of Joshua.

Books of Moses, containing the history of 2553 years from the creation. The book of Joshua commences here.

After the death of Moses, none remained of all the men twenty years old and upwards, that were numbered at Sinai, except Joshua, of the tribe of Ephraim, and Caleb, of the tribe of Judah. Joshua

2553

Israel enters the Promised Land.

succeeding Moses in the command of the tribes of Israel, led them across the Jordan, whose waters divided as the priests entered it with the ark, and continued divided till the ark was borne out by the priests, after the people had completed their passage. Twelve stones pitched in the channel of the river, and twelve more taken out of the river, and pitched at Gilgal, long stood as a memorial of this miraculous passage. Circumcision, which was first introduced by Abraham, one year before the birth of Isaac, was now renewed, after having been omitted forty years ; and the Passover was celebrated for the first time in the Land of Promise. Manna ceased to fall the next day after the celebration of the Passover

Joshua.

Jericho.

From Gilgal, which long continued the place of encampment, Joshua led the armies of Israel against Jericho, whose walls fell down at the blasts of the trumpets and shouts of the people, after having been several times encompassed by the armed men followed by priests, bearing trumpets of rams' horns, and the ark. All the inhabitants of Jericho were put to the sword, except the family of Rahab, who had faithfully concealed the spies sent there by Joshua, before he crossed the Jordan. In the first attack upon Ai, Israel was smitten and repulsed for the sin of Achan, who had taken of the accursed thing in stealing and hiding several valuable articles that he found among the spoils ; but, after Achan was punished, Ai was taken by stratagem and destroyed. Soon after Joshua was called to defend the Gibeonites, whose ambassadors pretending to be from a far country, had artfully drawn him into a league. He defeated the five kings who attacked Gibeon ; and, that he might have sufficient time to make the destruction of his enemies complete, he commanded the sun

The sun stands still over Gibeon.

to stand still over Gibeon, and the moon over the valley of Aijalon ; and thus the day was prolonged After destroying

their armies, and hanging the five kings, who were found hidden in the cave of Makkedah, Joshua went against their cities of Jebus, Eglon, Jarmuth, Lachish, and Hebron, which he took and destroyed, except Jebus or Jerusalem, and soon subdued all the southern part of the land. Soon after he vanquished a hostile confederacy of the northern kings; of whom Jabin, 'king of Hazor, was the principal; took their cities, and possessed himself of their country.

After prosecuting his wars about six years from the death of Moses, Joshua had conquered thirty-one kings in Canaan; and even then he left many native tribes unsubdued, that generally paid tribute to Israel, but continually seduced them into idolatrous practices, and often proved formidable enemies. In the seventh year, Joshua proceeded to divide the conquered country, by lot, among the nine tribes and a half that remained to be provided for. It would seem that, at first, the tribes of Judah, Ephraim, and Manasseh, received for their allotments, all the country south of Galilee; and that afterward, Benjamin, Simeon, and Dan, had their portions carved out of Judah and Ephraim. There was no tribe that bore the name of Joseph, but three allotments were made to his two sons, viz:—Manasseh, half tribe east of Jordan, and Ephraim and Manasseh, half tribe west of Jordan. There was no tribe of Levi, because his descendants were consecrated to the priesthood; but they had forty-eight cities, called Levitical cities, appointed for their residence. Ephraim and Manasseh, the sons of Joseph, supplied the place among the tribes of Joseph and Levi, making the number twelve, equal to that of Jacob's sons.

The tribes may be committed to memory in the following portions: *Reuben, Gad, Manasseh half tribe*, east of Jordan, conquered and allotted by Moses.

Pursuing the order of conquest, the next portion may be, *Benjamin, Judah, Simeon, Dan*, which constituted Judea under the Romans; most of which also seems to have been comprised in the first allotment to Judah; and conclusive arguments might be offered to show, that nearly all the territory included in these four tribes generally belonged to the successors of Solomon, after the dismemberment of the kingdom; third portion, *Ephraim and Manasseh half tribe*, which, after the restoration of the Jews, constituted Samaria between Judea and Galilee; fourth and last portion, *Ashur, Zebulon, Issachar, Naphtali*, which constitutes Galilee.

While the division of the country was going on, Joshua set up the tabernacle containing the ark, at Shiloh, in the tribe of Ephraim, (where it continued 328 years, from 2560 to 2888,) in the first year of Samuel. Six Levitical cities were appointed as places of refuge for the man-slayer, till he could be brought to a legal trial; *Bezer, Ramoth-Gilead*, and *Golan*, east of Jordan; *Hebron, Shechem*, and *Kadesh*, west of Jordan. Caleb, for his merit and valour, obtained Hebron in Judah, for his portion. To Joshua, the children of Israel gave Timnath-Serah in his own tribe of Ephraim. After the division of the land was completed, the two tribes and a half that had received their allotments, east of Jordan, were sent home with a blessing, having faithfully followed Joshua in his wars, as Moses re-

Allotments of
the tribes.

Tabernacle
at Shiloh.

quired, when he gave them their portions. Joshua died, aged 110, in 2567, or, as some think, ten years later.

JUDGES.

OTHNIEL,	—	ABDON.
EHUD,	TOLA,	—
SHAMGAR.	JAIR,	ELI,
—	JEPTEAH.	SAMSON.
DEBORAH,	—	SAMUEL.
GIDEON,	IBZON,	—
ABIMELECH.	ELON,	

The book of Judges commences here. The 342 years from the death of Joshua to the reign of Saul, is called the period of the Judges; but the greater part of it was a time of anarchy, distraction, and wickedness, and of wretched subjection to idolatrous and revengeful neighbours, whose gods Israel worshipped, and whose kings they painfully served. There was not any regular succession of Judges; but those so called, during this period, were usually persons providentially raised up by God to deliver his people from oppression. The idolatry of Micah, and the removal of the Danites to Laish, who on their way robbed Micah of his priest and gods, took place forty-five years after the death of Moses. Laish, at the head of Jordan, thence bore the name of Dan. About the same time, happened the desolating war waged against the tribe of Benjamin, by all the other tribes, on account of the Levite's wife; by which all the people of Benjamin were killed, except 600 men.—See 5 last chapters of the book of Judges, which, in due order of time, should be read before the history of the several judges and servitudes.

Because the children of Israel perversely served the gods of their idolatrous neighbours, the Lord sold them into the hands of the king of Mesopotamia, whom they served eight years. But when they cried unto the Lord, he raised up for their deliverer Othniel, the nephew and son-in-law of Caleb.

It is probable that during the greater part of this interval of eighty years, Israel was in a state of anarchy. During eighteen years of it, they served Eglon, king of Moab, who took and possessed Jericho, the city of palm-trees; finally, Ehud, a Benjamite, being charged with a present to Eglon, gained access to the king alone, in his summer-parlour, on a pretence of revealing a secret message, there stabbed him with a dagger, and delivered Israel.

Twenty years Israel served Jabin, king of Hazor, who had 900 chariots of iron. Deborah and Barak, leading out 10,000 men of Zebulon and Naphtali, defeated Jabin's army; upon which, Sisera, Jabin's captain, took refuge in the tent of Heber, the Kenite, and was there, while fast asleep on the ground, killed by Jael, the wife of Heber, who drove a nail of the tent into his temples. The people resorted to Deborah, dwelling under her palm-tree, in Mount Ephraim, to be judged.

Israel, having served Midian seven years, was delivered ^{To the Midianites.} by Gideon; who, after reducing his army of 32,000 to 300 by God's direction, surprised the camp of Midian at night, by his stratagem of trumpets and lamps concealed in pitchers, and so terrified the sleeping enemy with the sudden noise and clash, and instant blaze of light, that they wildly fled over Jordan, whither Gideon pursued and destroyed them. On his return he demolished Penueel and Succoth, east of Jordan, and chastised the inhabitants with briars and thorns, because they had refused to relieve his army in pursuit of the Midianites. Gideon refused to rule over Israel, though the people offered him the authority. He left seventy sons, by several wives.

Abimelech, one of his sons by a woman of Shechem, destroyed all his brethren but Jotham, the youngest, and was made king by the Shechemites. After reigning three years, he destroyed Shechem and sowed it with salt, because the people conspired against him. Soon after, in besieging Thebez, he was killed by a piece of mill-stone, which a woman cast upon his head. Tola judged Israel twenty-three years.

During the greater part of Jair's twenty-two years, Israel was sorely oppressed by the Philistines, on the southwest, and the Ammonites, on the east. Jephthah, of Manasseh or Gilead, east of Jordan, delivered the eastern Israelites from the oppression of the Ammonites. On his return home, Jephthah sacrificed his daughter to fulfil an indiscreet vow—"If thou wilt deliver the Ammonites into mine hands, I will offer up for a burnt-offering, whatsoever cometh out of the door of my house to meet me." ^{Jephthah's daughter.} Some commentators contend that he only devoted his daughter to celibacy. The Ephraimites, offended that Jephthah did not ask their aid against the Ammonites, passed over Jordan to fight him. Jephthah having vanquished and dispersed them, seized the passes of Jordan to prevent their retreat; and whenever any man wished to pass, the Gileadites discerned whether he was an Ephraimite, by asking him to pronounce Shibboleth; and, if he said Sibboleth, they slew him.

Of Ibzan, Elon, Abdon, it is merely said that they judged Israel so many years respectively.

Eli judged Israel forty years. He was high-priest in the line of Ithamar, the youngest son of Aaron, and was the first in that line, who ever bore the office. The high-priesthood, after descending in his family, through Abitub, Ahimelech, and Abiathar, was restored by David to the line of Eleazer, in the person of Zadok. Phinehas, the son of Eleazer, was promised a perpetual priesthood in his line, for his prompt and indignant punishment of the offenders in the matter of Peor.—See Numbers, 25th. ^{Israel serves the Philistines.} Israel served the Philistines during the whole time of Eli.

The twenty years of Samson, coincide with the last twenty years of Eli. Samson is said to have judged Israel twenty years; but the detail of his history, represents him only as a champion against the Philistines, slaying his thousands, and otherwise afflicting his inveterate enemies by means of his matchless and miraculous strength. This extraordinary strength lay in his hair, which was consecrated by the law of the Nazarite.—See the law of the Nazarite, Numbers 6th.

The following brief enumeration exhibits the principal achievements and adventures of Samson:—His marriage to a Philistine woman, of Timnath; his slaying thirty men, of Askalon, and taking their raiment to perform the wager, which the Philistines had won of him, by drawing from his wife the meaning of his riddle; his resentment at finding his wife given by her father to another man, displayed in setting fire to the cornfields, vineyards, and olive gardens of the Philistines, by fire-brands tied to the tails of three hundred foxes, which he caught for the purpose; his being surrendered on one occasion, to the imperious and revengeful Philistines, by three thousand of his own servile and submissive countrymen; his escape from Gaza, bearing on his shoulders the gates of the city; his unhappy love for the perfidious Delilah, and his great misfortune in being by her deprived of his hair and strength, while sleeping on her lap—upon which the Philistines took him, put out his eyes, and threw him into prison, bound in fetters of brass; the recovery of his hair and strength, and finally his last exploit, in pulling down the house of the Philistine god, Dagon, and killing, together with himself, a vast multitude of Philistines assembled to make sport of him; thus slaying more at his death than he had slain in his whole life.

It seemed proper to arrange the chronology of Eli and Samson, before leaving the book of Judges to enter upon that of Samuel. The history of Samuel blends with the histories of both Eli and Saul. The first chapter of the book of Samuel gives an account of his birth, in 2333, and of his early consecration to the Lord, by his mother Hannah, who placed him in the tabernacle, under the care of Eli. The second chapter relates the evil conduct of Eli's sons, and a prophecy against his family. The third chapter describes the vision that revealed to Samuel the destruction of Eli's family; Samuel then being a pupil of Eli, in the service of the tabernacle. The fourth chapter relates the disastrous overthrow of Israel by the Philistines, in two battles, in the latter of which Eli's two sons fell, and the ark was taken which had been brought to the camp from Shiloh, in a vain presumption of its affording protection to sinful Israel. When Eli heard of the taking of the ark by the Philistines, and of the death of his two sons, Hophni and Phinehas, he fell from his chair and broke his neck.

The Philistines of Ashdod, afflicted with disease by the presence of the ark, and seeing their god Dagon, twice fall down before it broken in pieces, sent it away to their city of Gath; whose inhabitants, also assailed by disease, sent it to Ekron; whence, for the same reason, the people sent it away to Bethshemesh, in Israel. Here 50,000 Israelites were smitten for looking into the ark, and the people removed it to Kirjath-jearim, where it remained until David had it taken to Jerusalem.

During the righteous government of Samuel, who succeeded Eli, the Lord discomfited the Philistines with thunder, and the hand of the Lord was against them all the time that Samuel judged Israel. Though the conduct of Samuel himself had been upright, and beneficial to the nation; yet, in consequence of the alleged disorderly and oppressive conduct of his sons, Joel and Abiah, in office under him, the people

assembled, and petitioned Samuel to make them a king to judge them, like all the nations. God was displeased at their thus rejecting his divine authority, but gave them a king in his wrath; and by his special directions, Samuel chose and anointed Saul, the son of Kish, a Benjamite, to rule over them. Saul's prompt and successful defence of Jabesh Gilead, east of Jordan, against the inhuman Nahash, king of the Ammonites, soon rendered him popular and completely established his authority.

KINGS OF ISRAEL AND JUDAH.

SAUL reigned 40 } They reigned over the whole land of Israel ;
 DAVID " 40 } which, after the death of Solomon, was divided
 SOLOMON " 40 } into two kingdoms, viz: Judah and Israel ; 3029.

The Philistines made repeated and vexatious inroads upon the land of Israel : but it is not easy to ascertain the precise time of many events that happened during Saul's reign of forty years. Chronologers usually fix Jonathan's victory over the Philistines in the eighth year of his father's reign ; Saul's expedition against the Amalekites, in the sixteenth year ; and the anointing of David at Bethlehem, in the thirty-second—8, 16, 32, 40. For the sinful presumption of Saul, in assuming the priest's office, and sacrificing before the arrival of Samuel ; for his culpable adjuration of the people on the occasion of Jonathan's victory, in saying, " Cursed be the man that eateth any food till evening ; " but more particularly for his flagrant disobedience in sparing king Agag, and the best of the spoils, when Samuel had commanded him utterly to destroy the Amalekites, and all they possessed, God rejected him ; and Samuel, after hewing Agag in pieces, abandoned his rejected king, and went home to Ramah.

Afterward God commanded Samuel to go to Bethlehem, in Judah, under a pretence of sacrificing there, and anoint David, son of Jesse, to be king instead of Saul. Jesse descended by two generations from Boaz and Ruth, and Boaz was a descendant of Judah and Tamar. Reuben was the eldest son of Jacob ; Joseph was the favourite, and most worthy of the patriarchal succession. The priesthood was given to the descendants of Levi ; but the royal line was derived from Judah, the fourth son. David was of the tribe of Judah, and from the line of David descended Jesus Christ.

It seems to have been soon after the anointing of David, that Saul, being informed of his superior skill in playing upon the harp, sent for him to play away his evil spirit ; and it was probably in the same year that David slew the gigantic Goliath, proud champion of the Philistines. David's valiant deeds, and the popular praise that he received, excited the deadly envy and hatred of Saul. After giving David his daughter Michal in marriage, by which he hoped to ensnare him, Saul continually persecuted his son-in-law, and sought his life with the most unrelenting malice.

While David remained with Saul, he several times very narrowly escaped being killed by the hands of his father-in-law, and, when he finally fled, he owed his escape to the faithful care and counsel of

Jonathan, Saul's son. After obtaining Goliath's sword of Ahimelech, the priest at Nob, and diverting the resentment of Achish, at Gath, by feigning himself mad, David retired to the cave of Adullam, in Judah, where his father's family came to him, and also great numbers of distressed and disaffected people, who made him a captain over them. Because Ahimelech, the priest, gave the sword of Goliath to David, Saul caused him to be killed, with all his family, except Abiathar, his son, who escaped to David. Driven from place to place by the persevering pursuit of Saul, David several times hardly escaped falling into his hands; but twice he had the life of his pursuer in his power, and nobly spared him.

At length David, with his two wives, Abigail and Abinoam, whom he had recently married, and his numerous followers, took refuge at Gath, with Achish, king of the Philistines. During his residence at Ziklag, a place which Achish gave him, David signalized his valour against the Amalekites, and other idolatrous nations, pretending to Achish on his return that his enterprises had been directed against Israel. The king put confidence in him, and intended to have his aid in the approaching battle with the Israelites; but David was spared the trial either of disobliging his protector, or of fighting against his own brethren, by the jealous interposition of the Philistine princes, who feared that he would turn against them in the hour of battle. Samuel had now been dead two years, and his anointed son of Bethlehem seemed as far from the throne, as when he was first anointed, eight years before. But nothing could defeat the predestined elevation of David to the throne of Israel; nothing could longer protract the doom and downfall of Saul, who derived from the Witch of Endor, and the ghost of Samuel, nothing but the most dismaying confirmation of his foreboding fears. The Israelites were overcome at Gilboa, by the Philistines; Jonathan was killed in battle, and Saul, wounded and despairing, fell upon his own sword. David lamented Saul and Jonathan in a song, and killed the Amalekite, who, bringing the tidings of Saul's death, hoped to recommend himself to David's favour, by pretending that he despatched the king.

By God's direction, David went immediately to Hebron, where he was made king of Judah, and reigned seven years; while Ishbosheth, a son of Saul, set up by Abner, reigned over the other tribes, and lived at Mahanaim, east of Jordan. During these seven years, David's power continually increased, till finally, Ishbosheth was betrayed by Abner, and slain by his own captains. After the death of Ishbosheth, David was acknowledged king of the whole land of Israel, and reigned thirty-three years at Jerusalem, which he took from the Jebusites, who seem to have held, till this time, the strong fortress of Zion. Within four or five years from this time, he subdued the Philistines, Amalekites, Edomites, Moabites, Midianites, and Syrians, and made an alliance with Toi, king of Hamath. It was in this interval, that he caused the ark to be brought from Kirjath-jearim, and placed in a tabernacle purposely prepared for it at Jerusalem. Michal, Saul's daughter, who had been restored to David by Abner, derided

David takes
refuge with
the
Philistines.

Witch of En-
dor.

David, King
of Judah.

King of Judah
and Israel.

Ark brought
to
Jerusalem.

the king for dancing before the ark, and was for that offence left in neglect by her husband. David, remembering the kindness of Jonathan, sent for his son Mephibosheth, entertained him at his table, and gave him Saul's possessions.

David having subdued all the surrounding nations, but the Ammonites; finally made war upon them, because they insulted his ambassadors; and Joab, David's captain, overthrew the confederated forces of Ammonites and Syrians. He then laid siege to Rabbah, the capital of Ammon, whose inhabitants David cruelly tortured after the city was taken. At this siege, David caused Uriah to be killed, and shortly after married Bathsheba, Uriah's widow, in the twentieth year of his

reign, 2969. Two years after, Solomon was born, the second Solomon. son of David by Bathsheba. The next year after the birth of

Solomon, Amnon, a son of David, provoked the mortal enmity of his half-brother Absalom, by his cruel and unnatural treatment of Tamar, Absalom's full sister. Two years afterward, Absalom, to avenge his sister Tamar, invited Amnon to a feast, perfidiously killed him, and fled to his grandfather Talmi, king of Geshur, where he lived three years, till David recalled him by the persuasion of Joab. David did not admit Absalom into his presence until two years after his return to Jerusalem. During the next two years, Absalom artfully and

assiduously studied to conciliate the favour and affection of the people; then going to Bethlehem, under a pretence of sacrificing, he collected an army, by the advice of the traitor Abithophel, rebelled against his father, drove him from Jerusalem, and pursued him over Jordan. Here a battle took place, in which Absalom was defeated by Joab, who pursued and despatched the rebel son, to the great grief of David, and contrary to his express commands. Two years before his death, David's people were visited by a destructive pestilence, inflicted as a chastisement for his sinful vanity in numbering the people by the temptation of Satan.—See 1 Chronicles, 21st chapter.

In the last year of David's reign, Adonijah, one of his sons, took advantage of the feeble and declining state of his father's health, to make himself king, by the assistance of Jeab, and

Abiathar, the priest; but David caused Solomon to be anointed by Nathan, the prophet, and Zadok, a priest of the line of Eleazar. After the death of David, Joab and Adonijah were put to death by Solomon; Abiathar was deposed, and Zadok received the priesthood, which seems to have been divided between them during the reign of David. David died, aged 70, in 2989. He committed great faults during his reign, for which he was deeply penitent.

Solomon transcended all the kings of Israel in power, magnificence, glory, and wisdom. David was not permitted to build the temple of the Lord, because he was a man of war and blood; but Solomon enjoyed a peaceful reign over the extensive dominions left him by his father, and in the fourth year of his reign he commenced the building of the temple. Hiram, king of Tyre, furnished him skilful artificers, and the cedars of Lebanon. He had 70,000 men employed to bear burthens, and 80,000 hewers in the mountains, besides 3,300 officers to oversee the workmen. The length of the temple was 60 cubits,

Adonijah's attempted usurpation.

King Solomon.

3000 The temple built.

its breadth 20, and its height 30. It was finished and dedicated with great ceremony in the eleventh year of Solomon's reign in 3000. Solomon also built two magnificent palaces, one for himself, and another for his queen, the daughter of Pharaoh king of Egypt. He imposed heavy burthens on his people, to meet his immense expenditures, but he, as well as David, derived vast riches and treasures from the traffic of the Red Sea, where they possessed a port and a fleet after the conquest of Edom. Solomon died in 3029.

History of the Kings of Israel.

KINGS OF ISRAEL.

JEROBOAM.	AHAB.	ZACHARIAH.
NADAB.	AHAZIAH.	—
—	JEHORAM.	SHALLUM.
BAASHA.	—	—
ELAH.	JEHU.	MENAHEN.
—	JEHOAAZ.	PEKAHIAH.
ZIMRI.	JOASH.	PEKAH.
—	JEROBOAM 2d.	HOSEA.
OMRI.		

The kingdom of David and Solomon included all the twelve tribes of Israel, and most of the adjoining countries; but God declared in the time of Solomon that his kingdom should be divided, and that only two tribes should remain faithful to his son Rehoboam. Solomon's sin in introducing a corrupt and idolatrous worship by the influence of his strange wives, provoked this declaration of God's judgment. In his vain presumption, the son of Solomon rejected the advice of the old men, and listening to the young men, spurned the humble petition of his subjects, who prayed for a reduction of the heavy taxes imposed by his father. The harsh and reproachful answer of the young king drove into immediate revolt the ten northern and eastern tribes, which from that time constituted a separate kingdom, called Israel. The two tribes of Judah and Benjamin remained faithful to the line of David, and were called the kingdom of Judah. After this event the kings of Syria maintained their complete independence, and often made destructive inroads into the kingdom of Israel. The Ammonites and Moabites submitted to the kings of Israel; but the Philistines and Edomites remained subject to Rehoboam, king of Judah. The boundaries between the kingdoms of Judah and Israel did not invariably remain the same, but occasionally changed with the vicissitudes of power incident to the almost incessant wars that raged between the two rival nations. There is reason to believe that Simeon and a part of Dan were early incorporated with the kingdom of Judah.

Rehoboam,
King of Ju-
dah.

3029
Revolt of the
10 tribes.

Jeroboam
King of
Israel. Jeroboam was an officer under Solomon, when Ahijah the prophet declared to him God's purpose to divide the kingdom, and Jeroboam being expressly named by the prophet as the future king of the ten tribes, was obliged to flee from the presence of Solomon into Egypt, whence he returned after the death of his offended king, and was made king of the dismembered tribes. The history of the kings of Israel exhibits a uniformly disgusting picture of wickedness and idolatry, scarcely exceeded in later times by the degenerate successors of Alexander and Augustus. Jeroboam at first made Shechem his capital, which he rebuilt 258 years after it was destroyed by Abimelech; but he afterwards resided at Tirzah. To prevent his people from going to Jerusalem to worship, he set up two golden calves for them to serve; one at Bethel, on his south border, the other at Dan, on his north border. He made priests of the lowest of the people, and cast off the Levites, who all flocked to Jerusalem, and strengthened Rehoboam. He made altars, groves, and high places for idolatrous worship, and impiously exercised the priest's office himself. See 1 Kings, chapters xii. and xiii.

Nadab. Nadab, the son and successor of Jeroboam, imitated all the perverse and idolatrous practices of his father. After a short career of folly and wickedness, he was cut off by the traitor

Baasha. Baasha, who, having killed his king, usurped the vacant throne, and destroyed the whole family of Jeroboam, thereby fulfilling the prediction of Ahijah the prophet. See 1 Kings, chapters xii. and xiii. Baasha and his family, by following all the flagitious sins of Jeroboam, provoked a similar prophecy, and experienced the same

Elah. Elah, the son of Baasha, was killed by Zimri, one of his captains, who also destroyed the whole family of Baasha and Elah, and seized the reins of government; by which was fulfilled the prophecy of Jehu. Omri, another captain of Elah, who was absent with the army, hearing that Elah was killed, and Zimri, his

Zimri. murderer, upon the throne, returned and besieged the usurper in Tirzah. After a short siege, Zimri, finding that his rival would prevail, set fire to the palace, and perished in the flames. Omri supported his pretensions to the throne, and reigned about twelve years, though a part of the nation followed Tibni, another competitor. In the sixth year of his reign, Omri built Samaria, on the borders of Ephraim and Manasseh, and made his new city the permanent capital of the kingdom.

Ahab. Three kings of Israel descended from Omri: Ahab, Ahaziah, and Jehoram. Ahab married the infamous Jezebel, daughter of the king of Tyre, and surpassed all the other kings of Israel in idolatry, corruption, wickedness, and cruelty. By the influence of his Tyrian queen, he introduced into Israel the idolatrous priests and altars, and the false gods of

Elijah. Tyre. Elijah the prophet, having denounced a grievous drought and famine, fled from the presence and pursuit of Ahab; but after concealing himself three years at the brook Cherith, and with the poor woman at Zarephath, he returned to the enraged king, and caused him to assemble all Israel, and the nine hundred and

fifty false prophets of Jezebel, at Mount Carmel. The assembled people, seeing that the false prophets could not call down fire from heaven to consume their sacrifices, as Elijah did, fell upon them in a rage and slew them. Then, at the prayer of Elijah, a plentiful shower of rain descended upon the whole land. Elijah having soon after fled into the wilderness from the fury of Jezebel, was commanded by God to return and anoint Elisha for his successor.

Siege of Samaria. Ahab was twice reduced to great distress by Benhadad, king of Syria, who besieged Samaria with immense armies; but God gave Israel strength, and victory, in both instances, and they slew an hundred thousand Syrians.

Naboth, of Jezreel, having refused to sell Ahab his vineyard, Jezebel caused him to be stoned to death, upon the accusation of false witnesses. For this horrid deed, Elijah appeared, and denounced the utter extinction of the whole family of Ahab.

Trusting to the false prophets, and spurning the admonitions of Micaiah, a true prophet, Ahab, accompanied by Jehoshaphat, king of Judah, led his armies against the king of Syria, then at Ramoth-Gilead, east of Jordan. Notwithstanding his cowardly precautions, in leaving off his royal robes when the hostile armies engaged, "a certain man drew a bow at a venture, and killed him."

Ahaziah. Ahaziah, the son of Ahab, lying dangerously sick of a fall, sent to consult Baalzebub, the god of Ekron, concerning his recovery. Elijah met the messengers, and told them that the king should surely die. Two companies of fifty men, successively, sent by the king to take Elijah, were consumed by fire from heaven; but the captain of the third company, entreating for his life, was spared by the prophet, who voluntarily went with him to the king, and told him that he must die. Ahaziah was succeeded by his brother Jehoram.

Jehoram. Jehoram, the last of his race who filled the throne of Israel. It seems to have been soon after the death of Ahaziah, that Elijah was taken up to heaven in a chariot of fire, leaving his mantle and his prophetic office to Elisha. See in 2 Kings, an account of the anointing of Hazael by Elisha, to be king of Syria, instead of Benhadad.

See in 2 Kings, the latter part of the eighth, and the whole of the ninth chapter, the account of a joint expedition of Jehoram, king of Israel, and Ahaziah, king of Judah, against Hazael, the new king of Syria, then at Ramoth-Gilead, Jehoram having retired from the army to Jezreel to be cured of a wound that he had received in battle, was visited there soon after by Ahaziah. In the absence of the two kings

Jehu anointed king, treacherously kills the kings of Judah and Israel. from the army, Jehu, one of Jehoram's captains, was anointed king by the direction of Elisha, and being acknowledged by the army, he proceeded in great haste to Jezreel, where he killed the two kings, and destroyed the whole family of

Ahab, according to the prophecy of Elijah. Wicked Jezebel, immediately after the death of her son Jehoram, was cast out of a window and devoured by dogs. Jehu established himself on the throne of Israel by destroying all the family of Ahab, and all the priests of Baal, that had been maintained by this wicked family. But Jehu practised all the sins of Jeroboam the first. During the reign of Jeho-

ahaz, the son of Jehu, Israel suffered greatly from the inroads of Hazael, king of Syria, who took all the country east of Jordan; but Joash, the son of Jehoahaz, recovered what his father had lost, and vanquished Benhadad, the son of Hazael, three times. Elisha, in his dying moments, had promised Joash these three victories. Jeroboam II. the son of Joash, pursued his father's success, and even took Hamath, in Syria, and Damascus, the capital. Zechariah, the last of the family of Jehu, was killed by Shallum, who, after reigning one month, was, in his turn, killed by Menahem. Menahem exacted large sums of money from his subjects, to purchase the forbearance and retreat of Pul, king of Assyria, who invaded Israel. Pekahiah, the son of Menahem, was killed by Pekah, one of his captains. Pekah was killed by Hosea, with whom the kingdom ended. The particulars of the reigns of Pekah and Hosea, will be related in connexion with the history of Judah.

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History of the Kings of Judah.

KINGS OF JUDAH.

REHOBOAM.	ATHALIAH.	MANASSEH.
—	—	AMON.
ABIJAH.	JOASH.	—
ASA.	ANAZIAH.	JOSIAH.
—	AZARIAH.	JEHOAHAS.
JEHOSHAPHAT.	JOTHAM.	JOHOIAKIM.
JEHORAM.	—	JEHOIAKIN.
—	AHAZ.	—
AHAZIAH.	HEZEKIAH.	ZEDEKIAH.

The people of Israel were afflicted with great national calamities for the sins of David and Solomon; but those eminent personages redeemed their characters and their people, by sincere penitence and general piety. Unfortunately, the majority of their royal descendants were gross and impenitent transgressors, who brought a long train of woe upon their people, and finally drew down ruin and captivity upon their devoted country. Asa, Jehoshaphat, Hezekiah, and Josiah, sustain exalted characters in the sacred annals; but their pious efforts were exerted in vain to reform the abuses and corruptions which nearly all the other descendants of Solomon openly practised and encouraged. Rehoboam not only imitated his father's sins, but shamefully multiplied the objects and forms of idolatry. To punish him, and his insatuated people, God permitted Shishak, (by some supposed to be the celebrated Sesostri,) king of Egypt, to invade the land of Judah, break into Jerusalem, and plunder the holy temple.

Shishak
plunders the
temple.

Abijah, the son of Rehoboam, had signal success in his war with Jeroboam, king of Israel; but he imitated, and even exceeded, the idolatry of his father.

Asa was a pious and good king; he abolished many corrupt practices; and, trusting in the Lord, he repulsed an immense army of Ethiopians. But in a later period of his reign, he made an unhallowed alliance with Benhadad, king of Syria, against Baasha, king of Israel, instead of seeking the protection of the Lord. Jehoshaphat surpassed his father, Asa, in his measures of reform. He caused the laws of Moses to be taught throughout his dominions, and made his authority to be respected, both at home and abroad. But he was reprov'd for joining Ahab in his fatal expedition to Ramoth-Gilead; he lost his fleet on the Red Sea, for admitting Ahab's son, Ahaziah, to have a concern in it; and he improperly suffered his son Jehoram to marry Athaliah, the daughter of wicked Ahab and Jezebel. Jehoram, on his father's death, put all his own brothers and several other princes to death. By the influence of his infamous queen, Athaliah, he practised every species of cruelty and abomination. He was punished by the revolt of Edom, and the consequent loss of the port and traffic on the Red Sea. He spent the last two years of his life in great torment, and at last literally fell to pieces, and died from the effects of painful and protracted disease. An account has already been given of the death of Jehoram's son, Ahaziah, who was killed by Jehu. Queen Athaliah survived her husband, Jehoram, and her son, Ahaziah, ascended the vacant throne on the death of the latter, and murdered all the sons of Ahaziah, except Joash, an infant, who was saved by the high priest, and concealed in the temple six years. At the end of that time, the high priest anointed Joash, aged seven years, and presented him to the people, who, attracting Athaliah to the temple by their shouts, fell upon her, and slew her. The reader is referred to Chronicles for the short history, and mixed or indifferent characters of the four next kings.

Early in the reign of Ahaz, the land of Judah was invaded and ravaged by Syrians, Israelites, Philistines, and Ammonites. In his distress, the wicked king applied for relief to Tiglath-Pileser, king of Assyria, whose aid he ignobly and impiously purchased with the sacred treasures of the holy temple. The Assyrian monarch first marched his armies into Syria, took Damascus, the capital, slew Rezin the king, sent the people captive into Assyria, and put an end to the kingdom of Syria. He then overrun the four northern and three eastern tribes of Israel, and sent the people into captivity. Hosea, who murdered and succeeded Pekah in Israel, submitted for a while to Shalmanezzer, the son of Tiglath-Pileser; but at length, impatient of tribute and dependence, he entered into an alliance with So, or Sabacon, king of Egypt, and thus completed the ruin of his little kingdom, which had already been reduced to two tribes, in the time of Pekah. To punish Hosea for his defection, Shalmanezzer entered his kingdom with an army, and besieged Samaria, the capital. After a siege of three years, Shalmanezzer took the city, sent all the people left by Tiglath-Pileser into captivity beyond the Euphrates, and repopled the country with Assyrians. This is the completion of what is called the first captivity, or captivity of the ten tribes, in 3283.

The good
king Asa.

Revolt of
Edom.

Ahaz buys
the aid of the
Assyrian
king against
the invading
Syrians with
sacred trea-
sures.

3283

First cap-
tivity.

While Shalmanezzer was prosecuting the siege of Samaria, ^{The good king} Hezekiah, the worthy son of wicked Ahaz, was employed in reforming the religion, and improving the state of his kingdom; and during his whole reign, the Assyrian monarch was too much occupied with other projects to disturb these pious and patriotic labours. It was reserved for the wild and furious Sennacherib to interrupt for a while the tranquillity of Judah, and by outrages and blasphemies, to provoke the vengeance of heaven upon himself and his devoted army. All the busy preparations and precautions of Hezekiah, seemed impotent and vain; the vast sums that he had paid to the greedy invader failed to satisfy him; the expected relief from the Ethiopian Tirhahah, (afterward king of Egypt) produced nothing but disappointment: but when all seemed lost, the promises and prophecies of Isaiah were fulfilled by a single blow of the destroying angel, which killed a hundred and eighty-five thousand of the Assyrian army, and left Sennacherib to return home, covered with shame and confusion, where he was assassinated by his own sons. It is necessary to read Isaiah, in addition to Kings and Chronicles, to get a complete account of Ahaz and Hezekiah.

Could Hezekiah have foreseen the infatuation of future kings, and the early depravity and disgraceful captivity of his son Manasseh, he might have forgotten to deplore the misdeeds of a father, in the overwhelming prospect of future shame and misfortune. After the captivity of Manasseh, by the Assyrian Esarhaddon, Judah seems to have been dependent on the Assyrian, or Babylonish kings, till the final destruction of Jerusalem. Amon was a wicked and idolatrous prince, but his son Josiah laboured with great zeal to root out idolatry, and restore the purity of religious worship. In the last year of his life, Josiah went out to oppose Pharaoh Necho, king of Egypt, who was passing through his territories against the king of Babylon. In the battle that took place, the good king was killed by an archer. On the death of Josiah, the people made Jehoahaz, his youngest son, king. But when Pharaoh Necho returned from the Euphrates, he deposed Jehoahaz, after he had reigned three months, and set up Jehoiakim, Josiah's eldest son, for king, Jeremiah, who began to prophesy in the time of Josiah, in vain denounced the wicked course of all the kings that reigned in Judah after that pious monarch. For his bold admonitions he was frequently arraigned, and for a long time kept shut up in prison.

Two years before his death, Nabopolassar, king of Babylon, sent his son and associate Nebuchadnezzar, with an army into Judah.

While besieging Jerusalem, the Babylonish king took Jehoiakim prisoner, and bound him in fetters, with an intention to carry him to Babylon, but restored him to the throne on his humbling himself, and submitting to tribute. Nebuchadnezzar, on this occasion, caused a selection to be made of royal and noble youths, of the fairest countenance and brightest parts, and sent them to Babylon. Daniel was among these captives; and here commenced the second captivity, in 3398.

^{Nebuchadnezzar exacts tribute from} Jehoiakim.

^{Daniel.}

^{2d captivity.}

After submitting several years, Jehoiakim rebelled against Nebuchadnezzar, who immediately sent his armies to reduce him to obedience. The war had been conducted about three years, when Jehoiachin, or Jechoniah, became king by the death of his father. The new king, after reigning three months, came out of the city, accompanied by his mother and his princes, and surrendered to the king of Babylon, who made Zedekiah, a son of Josiah, king, and sent a great number of people captive to Babylon. Ezekiel, who was one of the captives, always dates from the captivity of Jehoiachin. Jeremiah, knowing that the Jews must remain in captivity seventy years, wrote a letter to the Jews at Babylon, admonishing them not to believe the dreams of the lying prophets, who foretold the speedy restoration of Jehoiachin and his captive people; and the prophet enjoined them to settle down quietly till the expiration of the seventy years. He also exhorted Zedekiah and the neighbouring princes, to submit to the king of Babylon, and threatened them with terrible calamities if they rebelled.

In the ninth year of Zedekiah, the king of Babylon learning that he had entered into a league with the king of Egypt, advanced with a great army into Judah, took many cities, and besieged Jerusalem. Jeremiah was shut up in the court of the prison for advising the king and people to submit; yet he persisted in giving the same advice, even after Nebuchadnezzar had raised the siege to defend himself against the king of Egypt; and the prophet boldly declared that the king of Egypt would afford no relief, and that the king of Babylon would certainly return to the siege, and take both the city and the king. King Zedekiah frequently consulted this prophet while in prison concerning the event of the war, and uniformly received for answer, that he must submit to the king of Babylon, or abide the most awful consequences of his obstinacy. Finally, Zedekiah seeing that the Babylonians had made a breach in the wall of the city, fled in the night, but was pursued by the enemy, overtaken in the plains of Jericho, and carried to Nebuchadnezzar, then at Riblah, in Syria. There, after seeing all his sons and all his princes killed, his eyes

were put out, and he was sent to Babylon, where he shortly after died. The Babylonians having entered Jerusalem, and broken down the walls, proceeded to burn the temple, the king's palace, and all the houses in the city. All the people were carried captive to Babylon, except the poorer sort, who were left to cultivate the vineyards and the fields, under the direction of Gedaliah, a Jew, whom Nebuchadnezzar appointed governor of the land. Jeremiah chose to remain in his own country, though he had the offer of enjoying at Babylon the friendship of Nebuchadnezzar. Gedaliah having been treacherously killed shortly after his appointment, the people fled into Egypt, fearing the resentment of the king of Babylon. Jeremiah assured them that they would suffer no injury if they remained where they were; but if they went to Egypt, the sword which they feared would overtake them there; for he foresaw and foretold that Nebuchadnezzar would conquer Egypt. The people compelled the prophet, contrary to his wishes, to accompany them into Egypt, where it is known that he re-

Jehoiakim
rebels.

Zedekiah
made king.
Ezekiel.

Jerusalem
besieged.

Zedekiah
dies at Baby-
lon.

3416

Destruction
of Jerusa-
lem, and
completion
of the 2nd
captivity.

mained a considerable time; but the time and place of his death are not known. The destruction of Jerusalem, and desolation of Judah, in 3416, was the completion of the second captivity; but the commencement of the seventy years captivity was in 3398, when Daniel was taken.

The rich and commercial city of Tyre, had in early times maintained the most friendly relations with David and Solomon; but in the declining days of the Jewish kingdom, the Tyrians exulted over the calamities of God's people, and thereby ensured those terrible denunciations proclaimed by the prophet Ezekiel, and executed by Nebuchadnezzar. But the reduction of Tyre cost the king of Babylon the persevering efforts of thirteen years; and when at last the greedy Babylonians entered the place—behold! a new city grown up on an island, half a mile distant from the shore, to which the people had removed with their effects, leaving the conquerors to wreak their vengeance on empty walls. But this wretched pay for men whose “every head was bald, and every shoulder peeled,” was soon made good by a successful expedition into Egypt, which was overrun, wasted, and plundered, by the armies of Nebuchadnezzar, as had been prophesied by Jeremiah and Ezekiel. For further particulars relating to Nebuchadnezzar, the reader is referred to Kings, Chronicles, Jeremiah, Ezekiel, and Daniel. On his death his son, Evil Merodach, released king Jehoiachin from prison, and paid him great respect, as head of the captivity, and nominal prince of the Jews at Babylon.

History of Egypt to A.M. 3500.

EGYPT.

IN Egypt the wonderful structures raised by human art and servile hands, attest the early power and despotism, as well as the empty vanity of its kings; and these towering wonders, no less than the number and extent of its cities, proclaim the immensity of its population, and strongly incline us to lament the obscurity of its early history. No resolution can overcome the utter aversion of the mind to the dry and barren chronicles of this wonderful country. We are not easily reconciled to names and sounds that grate harshly on the ear, even when they represent objects of interest; and this difficulty is increased in tenfold proportion, when these barbarous and uncouth names denote insignificant individuals, or persons whose history is uncertain or unknown. A single glance at the long list of one hundred and thirty-nine pretended kings of Egypt, is sufficient to dishearten the most resolute learner, who has any other object than to try his organic skill in uttering strange and awkward combinations of sounds. The name and fame of Sesostris, might afford a pleasing exception, if historians could determine within five hundred years when that renowned conqueror broke loose from Egypt, overrun Asia and Europe, and even marched triumphantly over the wide domain of some ancient Assyrian lord.

From the earliest ages there had been four kingdoms in Egypt, viz : Heliopolis or Lower Egypt, Thebes or Upper Egypt, and This and Memphis between them, till, in 2326, Nitocris, queen of Memphis, united This and Thebes to her dominions.

Profane historians tell us, that about fifteen years before the death of Joseph, the Shepherd kings—adventurers from Arabia—conquered Heliopolis, or Lower Egypt, and reigned at Tanis, till the race was expelled, 2784. The Old Testament gives the history of Egypt, only so far as it is connected with the Jewish history. After

the departure of the Israelites from Egypt, they appear to have held little intercourse with that country, till the reign of Solomon. From this period there is some slight connexion between the histories of the two countries, and some notice is taken of Egyptian affairs in the Scriptures.

From Psammetichus to Alexander, three hundred years, we obtain considerable information from the Jewish writers. This is the time when the swords of Egypt and Assyria clashed over the heads of the

Israelites. During the reign of Apries, (the Pharaoh Hophrah of Scripture,) extended plans of conquest were formed, partly against Asia, partly against Cyrene, in Africa. The event, proving unsuccessful, occasioned a rebellion among the Egyptians, who were generally opposed to foreign wars. A civil war ensued, in which Apries loses his throne and life; and with him, the dynasty of Psammetichus ended.

There was much intercourse between the Greeks and the Egyptians in this age; many of the former settled in Egypt; many visited it as travellers—among whom were Pythagoras and Herodotus. Egypt is full of wonders when authentic history commences—wonders of mechanic arts, monuments of labour, ingenuity, and expense. Who executed them, no one can tell.

The world is full of disputes concerning the literature of Egypt. It had no learning in the *common sense of the word*; no books; no authors, not even scraps for Pythagoras and Herodotus to examine; no history, except the juggling fables made up by their priests, who could not read the inscriptions on their own pyramids and temples. Herodotus tries to believe all, and make something out of his visit, but it amounts to little.

3478 Egypt was conquered by Cambyses, 3478, and remained subject to Persia at 3500.

KINGS OF ASSYRIA.

PUL.	SENNACHERIB.
SARDANAPALUS.	ESARHADDON.
TIGLATH-PILESER.	NEBUCHADNEZZAR, 1st.
SHALMANEZER.	SARACUS.

KINGS OF BABYLON.

NABOPOLASSAR,	EVIL MERODACH,
NEBUCHADNEZZAR,	BELSHAZZAR.

General remarks relating to the Assyrian Empire.

Profane historians usually attribute a great extent and duration to the first Assyrian Empire, of which Sardanapalus is said to have been the last king. Some authors have condescended to offer a list of the names of about forty mute monarchs; whose story, if they ever lived or reigned, has not been told. In relation to this subject, we

Foundation of the Assyrian Empire uncertain. may remark, that authentic history ascertains the early existence of a great empire, in the west of Asia, which had first Nineveh for its capital, and afterward Babylon; and which was finally overthrown by Cyrus, the Persian. Of the commencement, duration, extent, or power, of the first Assyrian Empire, we have no authentic records to inform us. Some make Nimrod, others Belus, and others again Ninus, the founder of this empire; but they differ widely in fixing the date of its foundation. It is vain to seek either for the founder, or the time of its foundation.

It is reasonable to suppose, that there were many petty kingdoms, but no great consolidated empire in the west of Asia, till after the time of David and Solomon; perhaps not till the time of Tiglath-Pileser, and his successors. Yet historians vainly attribute to Ninus and Semiramis vast power, immense armies, and distant conquests; and this was before the time of Abraham, according to their chronology, and not four centuries after the flood. Before we ascribe a vast population to the countries about the Euphrates, at so early a period, we should recollect that those countries must have been continually drained to people other regions. There were cities in the time of Abraham, but those cities were small; there were kingdoms, but those kingdoms were insignificant. We read in Genesis, that four eastern kings advanced against the petty kings of Canaan, and overthrew them; but Abraham, with his servants, and a few neighbours, pursued and vanquished the four eastern kings in their retreat.

It is evident, from the histories of Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob, that people were thinly scattered over the western regions of Asia in their time. The power of David and Solomon probably exceeded that of any king that had ever reigned before in any of the countries of Asia. The Israelites often bowed down under the oppression of petty neighbours; but so far from having been disturbed by any great neighbouring monarchy, they never had occasion even to mention such a one in their annals, till about 3250.

Such as would mount high up the stream of time in search of wonders, may find ample scope for their imaginations in the thirteen or fourteen centuries, attributed to the duration of this fabulous empire. Happily but few fables have as yet been invented for this dark interval, though a long list of insignificant names have been found or invented for a race of real or supposed kings. Commencing in the eighteenth, nineteenth, or twentieth century after the creation, as choice or caprice directs, the imagination may roam unclogged by tiresome realities, over a spacious wilderness of twelve, thirteen, or fourteen centuries. Without any new effort of imagination, the actual or sup-

Ninus and Semiramis. posed conquest of the Assyrian Ninus, and the more brilliant exploits of Semiramis, his renowned queen and successor, might for a moment dispel the gloom of silence and solitude, and shed a transient lustre over this dreary waste. The immense cities which these two celebrated monarchs are said to have built, embellished, or enlarged, might cheer the dull obscure age whose annals have not reached us, and beautify a region just desolated by a destroying deluge, and continually drained to supply population to distant countries. The vast armies and conquering hosts which our hero and heroine conducted to the borders of Ethiopia, or beyond the remote banks of the Indus, gloriously illustrate the valour of Abraham, who, with his own household, vanquished the confederated forces of the kings of Assyria, Chaldea, Persia, &c.; and this was after the supposed time of Ninus and his valiant queen.

After taking leave of Ninus and Semiramis, we may smile at the sullen silence of the forty kings of Ctesias or Eusebius, distributed through twelve centuries, and whose empty names form the barren history of their empire; but a generous feast of fiction awaits us in the palace of his most effeminate and degenerate majesty Sardanapalus. Sardanapalus. napalus, who, we are told, spun at the distaff with his women; and finally, in a fit of despair, consumed himself and all his spinning sisters in the flames of his palace; thus nobly spinning out his days and his race, to escape a more cruel fate from the hand of an enemy, who beset his capital, and dismembered his kingdom. After this catastrophe our history may assume a graver tone.

Though it will still be impossible to separate fiction from facts, or ascertain the precise dates of real transactions, yet, from the **3257** commencement of Tiglath-Pileser, in 3257, the grand revolution of empire can be traced; and these revolutions assume an interest and importance that cannot be despised.

We will forbear attempting to decide which of the two, Pul or Sardanapalus, was the immediate predecessor of Tiglath-Pileser, till the learned can determine whether Pul was the father or son of Tiglath-Pileser, the supposed founder of the new dynasty. Sardanapalus, or whether he was in fact any way related to that ill-fated monarch, since some contend that he was the founder of the new dynasty, and the father of Tiglath-Pileser.

If Babylon made a part of the ancient Assyrian Empire, it was dismembered at the death of Sardanapalus; or, at any rate, before the accession of Tiglath-Pileser to the throne of The kingdom of Babylon severed from the Assyrian Empire. Nineveh; for it constituted a separate kingdom till **3324**, when Esarhaddon added it to the Assyrian Empire. The *kingdom* of Babylon, just noticed, must be carefully distinguished from the Babylonish *empire*, afterward established by Nabopolassar, who destroyed Nineveh, and reigned at Babylon. The destroyer of Sardanapalus, and of the ancient Assyrian Empire, (if we believe the lamentable tale,) might or might not have been Arbaces, a Mede: and that Arbaces might or might not have been the Tiglath-Pileser mentioned in the sacred history. We cannot pronounce with any confidence, that Media and Persia either did or did not belong to the ancient Assyrian Empire: if they did, they were pro-

3257
Media & Persia dismem-

bered from it. bably dismembered about 3257, as represented on the chart; though Prideaux dates the separation later, in the time of Sennacherib. The conquest of Syria and Israel, by Tiglath-Pileser and his son Shalmanezzer, made some amends for the loss of Media: the conquest of Babylon, by Esarhaddon, and the subsequent conquest of Judah and other countries, by Nebuchadnezzar the second, raised the Assyrian Empire to great power and splendour.

The kings of Media were perpetually hostile to the Assyrian kings; but the accounts given by different authors of wars between these two nations, are so various and contradictory, that the reader of history can derive but little satisfaction from the perusal of detailed accounts. It is evident that both parties made great acquisitions of territory at the expense of the surrounding nations, and that the whole of Western Asia was divided between them when Cyrus commenced his career of conquest. It is believed that Cyaxares the first assisted Nabopolassar in his revolt against Saracus, the last king who reigned at Nineveh, and that both Nineveh and Saracus were destroyed by the joint efforts of Cyaxares and Nabopolassar. Nabopolassar was a Babylonian by birth, and governor of Babylon, under Saracus; on the destruction of Nineveh, he became king, in the place of Saracus, and established the Babylonish Empire. He made Babylon the seat of empire; and, from the commencement of his reign, historians call this great monarchy indifferently the Babylonish or Assyrian Empire. The history of Nabopolassar's successors will receive due attention in connexion with that of the Jews. The glories of the Babylonish dynasty were buried in the grave with Nebuchadnezzar, the second of the race. His feeble and dissolute successors loosely held the sceptre over a tottering empire; and the vigorous hand of Nebuchadnezzar himself could hardly have resisted the predominant fortune of the Persian Cyrus.

History of Persia to A.M. 3500.

KINGS OF PERSIA.

CYRUS.	DARIUS 2d.
CAMBYSES.	ARTAXEREXES 2d.
DARIUS 1st.	ARTAXEREXES 3d.
XERXES.	DARIUS 3d.
ARTAXEREXES 1st.	

After the death of Nebuchadnezzar, the Babylonish empire rapidly hastened to its downfall; while the monarchy of the Medes and Persians proportionately rose in power, and increased in extent, by the extraordinary abilities and fortune of the Persian Cyrus. For a detailed account of the Persian hero, the reader is referred to Herodotus, Xenophon, Rollin, Prideaux, &c.,

Cyrus of Persia.

whose various and contradictory accounts demonstrate the uncertainty that involves his history, though nothing can be better attested than the final result of his wars. It has been asserted by some authors, that Cyrus conquered Media, and subjected it to Persia, before he commenced hostilities against the Babylonish kings; but it is generally acknowledged that he carried on all his wars in conjunction with his uncle Cyaxares, king of Media, whose daughter he married, and whose dominions he finally inherited. Many battles and victories are attributed to these two confederated kings, during a war of twenty

*Cræsus king
of Lydia.*

years, commencing in 3446. The fate and fortune of Cræsus, king of Lydia, who allied himself with Belshazzar, was decided in the tenth year of the war, 3456. Cyrus met this powerful antagonist in Cappadocia, on the borders of the Lydian kingdom; defeated him in battle, pursued him into the heart of his dominions; there defeated him again; shortly after took Sardis, his capital, and made the unfortunate king himself a prisoner.

Ten years elapsed from the conquest of Cræsus by Cyrus, to the taking of Babylon. We have no detailed account of the operations during these ten years, but eight of them must have been consumed in regulating the conquered provinces, and in making new conquests; and two years were spent before Babylon. If prodigies of valour, transcendent skill, or superiority of numbers, could have availed, the fate of Babylon, and of the impious Belshazzar, would not have been

*Taking of
Babylon.*

prolonged two complete years. But storms, assaults, engines, and batteries, were impotently directed against the towering ramparts and lofty battlements of Babylon. Cyrus might be ignorant of the decrees of heaven, and of the prophecies of Isaiah, who called him by name two hundred years before his birth, but the eventual success of the Persians strikingly exhibits the hand of an overruling Providence. To seek an entrance into Babylon by diverting the waters of the Euphrates from their accustomed channel through the town, was an expedient that might suggest itself to the natural sagacity of Cyrus; but each bank of the river supported an inner wall of great height and strength, and it required a bold presumption of negligence within the city, to justify the expectation of entering it, even after the channel was drained. A night of festivity, merriment, and intoxication, chosen by Cyrus, gave complete success to his daring stratagem. He entered the city unopposed; killed the king, and in one night subjected to his power that proud people, who for two years had defied his threats, derided his unavailing efforts, and scoffed at his baffled armies. See Daniel v.

The Median empire lasted two years after the taking of Babylon; for though Cyrus, the Persian, had been a principal agent in making all these great conquests, yet as long as his uncle Cyaxares lived, he yielded to him the precedence. The Persian empire commenced in 3468, when Cyrus became sole king by the death of his uncle. In

*Daniel the
prophet.*

*Restoration
of the Jews.*

the same year, Daniel, finding by a computation of the time, that the seventy years' captivity, foretold by Jeremiah, had expired, prevailed upon Cyrus to let the Jews return to their own country, under the direction of Jeshua, the high priest, and Zerubbabel, grandson of Jehoiachin, and prince of the

captivity. The decree of Cyrus commanded the captive Jews to return, and repopulate their desolated country, and rebuild their city and temple. Daniel possessed great influence in the councils of Cyrus; he had before been advanced into the highest grade of office by the kings of Babylon, and his reputation for learning and wisdom procured him the highest station under Cyrus.

The great Cyrus was succeeded by his unworthy son
Cambyzes, son of Cyrus, conquers Egypt. Cambyzes, whose whole career is marked by the odious extravagance of a wild and furious despot. In the early part of his reign, this mad king marched into Egypt, which he conquered, and annexed to the Persian empire. In this expedition, from which he never returned, he displayed all those cruel and ferocious qualities which have stained his character with infamy. Fifty thousand of his men perished, whom his wanton cupidity sent into the Lybian desert to plunder the temple of Jupiter Ammon. He lost one half of a great army in his inglorious expedition against Ethiopia. He sent an assassin to kill his brother Smerdis, because he had dreamed that he sat upon the throne; and he killed his wife, who was also his sister, because she shed tears for her murdered brother. On his way home, in Syria, a herald met him, and proclaimed Smerdis, the Magian, king, who, under the false and assumed character of Smerdis, the brother of Cambyzes, had usurped the throne. In the act of mounting his horse to lead his troops to his capital against the usurper, his sword fell from the scabbard, and gave him a wound, of which he died in a few days. Smerdis the Magian reigned seven months, when a discovery being made of the imposition, he was deposed and killed, by a conspiracy of seven noblemen, one of whom, Darius Hystaspes, ascended the vacant throne. Darius married two of the daughters of Cyrus, whose blood was thus transmitted through the whole succession of Persian kings.

It is supposed that Cambyzes was the Ahasuerus, and Smerdis the Artaxerxes, who are said by Ezra to have obstructed the building of the second temple. In the second year of Darius Hystaspes, the Jews being roused by the remonstrances of the prophets Haggai and Zechariah, applied themselves diligently to provide materials for the temple; and notwithstanding the Samaritans persisted in their clamorous opposition, Darius issued a decree confirming the original decree of Cyrus, and forbidding the Samaritans to obstruct the work. The temple was finished in 3488, just twenty years after the return of the Jews.

The Persian kings having made Susa their capital, proud Babylon was no longer the seat of a great empire. In the fifth year of Darius, that city revolted, and it cost him a siege of twenty months to reduce it, and even then he was compelled to resort to stratagem. In 3491,
Conquests of Darius. Darius carried his arms into Europe, conquered Thrace, and made an unsuccessful expedition against the Scythians inhabiting the western shores of the Euxine, or Black Sea. After his return into Persia, he conquered India, and annexed that country to his dominions, which then embraced all the great countries and kingdoms in the west of Asia, besides Egypt in Africa, and Thrace in Europe.

History of Lydia to 3500.

The names of the Lydian kings of three successive dynasties are not deserving of a place on the chart; little can be confidently said of any of them, except Cræsus, the last of his race, and of him fable speaks more fluently than sober history. We need not doubt that the kings of Lydia, by successive conquests, reduced all the other states and kingdoms of Asia Minor under their subjection, and that the Greeks settled there were included among the numerous tributary subjects of Cræsus. We may readily believe that the Lydian court and king are truly represented as supporting great magnificence and splendour, when we consider the internal resources of this country, and the busy commerce of the enterprizing Greeks, which might supply with great prodigality the luxuries of a court, and serve to exhibit in striking colours, the vicissitudes of fortune, in the sudden and unhappy overthrow of Cræsus and all his Lydian grandeur.

History of Greece to A.M. 3500.

During the fabulous or heroic age of Greece, a splendid system of fiction was formed, that far transcends all others of the kind ever produced by the wild imaginations of men. Many real characters and transactions may have been disguised in these extravagant fables, but we are limited to mere conjecture, in attempting to separate truth from embellishment; and as yet, no very satisfactory conclusions have resulted from speculations directed to that object. It is impossible to trace the origin of ancient fictions, or understand fully the process that could have imposed them for truth upon the credulity of mankind.

Whatever might have been their origin, it is certain that these romantic dreams finally gained implicit belief, and produced the most surprising effects upon the character and transactions of men. The tales of wonder that were related of the ancient heroes and demigods, were adapted to inspire the human breast with that ardent passion for glory, and that singular enthusiasm which predominated in the Grecian character, to the lamentable disparagement of the milder and more amiable virtues.

The geographical situation of Greece, had also its share of influence in forming the manners and character of the people. The face of their country every where exhibited the most romantic, picturesque, and interesting scenes; their delightful climate was calculated to cherish ardour, enthusiasm, and patriotic devotion; while the numerous seas, bays, and gulfs that surrounded them, promoted intercourse with their neighbours, facilitated commercial interchange, and invited enterprizing emigrants from abroad.

Effects of the system of the Greek mythology.

Of geographical situation.

Among the numerous causes that combined to raise the Grecians to so high a pitch of physical and intellectual improvement, we must not overlook their numerous games and other institutions, which drew all the citizens very frequently together from every part of the country, to exercise their skill and stimulate their ambition by emulation and strife.

The Olympic and Isthmian games were the most celebrated; but besides these, every little state, and every considerable city, had numerous institutions of the kind, where it was honourable to excel, and disgraceful to be excelled.

Of Games,
institutions,
&c.

ATHENS.

The Athenians, after abolishing the kingly office in 2934, retained their perpetual or hereditary archons, till 3250, after which time they were governed by decennial archons, or archons chosen for ten years, till 3320, when they established an aristocratical government, which was administered by ten annual archons. This last institution subsisted nearly one hundred years, till Solon established a democracy by vesting the power in the assemblies of the people. Solon flourished in the time of Nebuchadnezzar the great, and died in 3444. His institutions were preserved with some interruptions, till Athens submitted to the Romans. The laws of Solon secured to the Athenians a licentious freedom, which was liable to perpetual abuse, and which the wild democracy of Athens seldom failed to abuse.

About the time of Nebuchadnezzar's death, in 3443, and shortly before the death of Solon, Pisistratus, a man of great address and persuasive eloquence, usurped the sovereign power at Athens, in opposition to the interest and influence of Solon himself, and retained his authority with some interruptions thirty-three years. The Pisistratidæ, or sons of Pisistratus, inherited their father's authority, and continued to exercise it eighteen years, from 3477 to 3495. Such was the aversion of the Athenians to the kingly government, that Pisistratus himself was twice driven into exile by the turbulence of the democratic factions, though his government was exceedingly mild and indulgent, even to his bitterest enemies. His son Hipparchus, was assassinated by a desperate band of conspirators; and Hippias, the other son, who was associated with Hipparchus, was finally expelled from Athens in 3495, in the same year of the expulsion of the kings of Rome.

Pisistratus
usurps sove-
reign power.

SPARTA.

From the year 2900, two kings, possessed of equal authority, reigned jointly at Sparta till a late period of Spartan history. In the days of Joash, king of Judah, and about three hundred years before the time of Solon, Lycurgus, one of the joint kings of Sparta, instituted that famous code of laws which rendered the Spartans the most hardy, courageous, inflexible, and obdurate people that ever existed, unless we except the early Romans. The commendation of such laws and of such a people, belongs to those who have a taste to admire, and a disposition to eulo-

Lycurgus
forms his code
of laws.

Their effects.

gize patient and voluntary suffering, painful abstinence, gloomy austerity, and hardy discipline, practised almost to the exclusion of every virtue, and seemingly for no other purpose than to bear down their wretched slaves and weaker neighbours, under iron yokes of oppression and cruelty. The force and effects of this so much admired system of laws, will be progressively developed by the subsequent history of Sparta; they were always cruelly felt by their miserable Helots or slaves; and were early and conspicuously displayed in the Messenian wars. The first Messenian war—nineteen years, from 3261 to 3280; the second fourteen years, from 3319 to 3333; the notice of the third belongs to the next period. The poor Messenians had the misfortune to be the nearest neighbours of the Spartans, and they had the temerity to defend themselves against the wanton and unprovoked attack of the disciples of Lycurgus. At the end of the second war, after two glorious struggles for independence, they were compelled to submit to a condition little better than that of absolute slavery. After the reduction of the Messenians, Sparta long maintained a complete ascendancy over the other states of the Peloponnesus.

CORINTH.

Monarchy abolished in Corinth, 3250. About 3250, the Corinthians killed their last king of the race of Bachidæ, and abolished monarchy. A numerous branch of the Bachidæ then seized the government, and maintained a rigid aristocracy, till about 3350, when Cypselus, a mild and gentle ruler, destroyed the reigning oligarchy, and governed the state. Periander, a contemporary of Solon, and like him styled one of the seven wise men of Greece, succeeded his father Cypselus, in 3375, and died in 3419. Psammetichus, the nephew of Periander, was expelled in 3422, after which Corinth usually maintained a free government.

Sparta the only kingly government in Greece. After the abolition of Royalty at Corinth, every Grecian state had free institutions, except Sparta, whose kings though hereditary, were limited and restrained in their authority by the senate and Ephori. The democracy of Greece was favourable to the improvement and cultivation of the liberal arts, and encouraged the full display of genius of every order and cast; but the capricious despotism of a mob, unchecked by constitutional barriers, often proved more fatal to the lives and liberty of good men, than the arbitrary rule of a single tyrant.

MACEDONIA.

Kingdom of Macedonia founded 3190. Though this kingdom is said to have been founded by Grecian emigrants from Argos, as early as 3190, its kings are little worthy of notice till the time of Philip and Alexander, who will be introduced as the conquerors of all Greece, and of the whole Persian monarchy.

COLONIES.

Greek colonies. The states founded in Greece by early emigrants from Egypt and Asia, afterward furnished enterprising colonies, that

made settlements on nearly all the islands and coasts of the Mediterranean. The most flourishing of these colonies again supplied emigrants for other settlements, and long before the year 3500, the Grecian name and nation were diffused over the coasts of Asia Minor, Thrace, Macedonia, Italy, Sicily, Gaul, and Cyrene in Africa, as well as the numerous islands in the Ægean and Ionian seas. The Æolians, Ionians, and Dorians settled the western coast of Asia Minor before the time of Solomon. They finally submitted to the king of Lydia, and with him to Cyrus. The most famous Grecian cities in Italy, were Tarentum, Crotona, Sybaris, Rhegium, and Parthenope, or Naples. Those in Sicily, Syracuse, Agrigentum, Gela, Messina, Sicily and the south of Italy bore the name of Magna Grecia, or Great Greece, from the prevalence of Greek population.

History of Rome to A.M. 3500.

The grandeur of the Roman name would seem to entitle their Roman majesties to a respectful attention; but it is humbly conceived that the poets have already exhausted the magnificent theme of godlike descent and marvellous origin; and that grave historians have amply embellished the early wonders and infant exploits of a rapacious banditti, who made war, and plunder, and conquest, the only honourable employments in their little community. That Roman kings conquered one little city, and one little territory after another; and that Roman consuls prosecuted similar conquests, after the expulsion of the kings, we may venture to believe, without any confidence in the details of their history; and that sullen perseverance was the ruling character of the early Romans, can no more be questioned than that Tarquin was a tyrant.

Italy, (Italia.)

The origin of this name is uncertain.

Italy is the English translation of the Latin Italia, differently applied at different times, both by Romans and Greeks.

Hesperia, (Greek)
Ausonia, (Æno-
tria, and Opicia.

Hesperia meant a western country in relation to Greece. Ausonia, &c., though sometimes applied by the Greeks to all Italy, were strictly applied to particular districts.

North Italy, or
Cisalpine Gaul,
including Liguria
and Venetia.

The modern
kingdom of Sardinia,
and the Austrian
kingdom of Lombardy
and Venice.
Cispadane, Trans-
padane, (subdivi-
sions.)

Liguria, (Genoa) between the Appennines and the gulf of Genoa, though commonly included in Cisalpine Gaul, was not inhabited by Gauls, and but few Gauls settled in Venetia, (Veneti) around the head of the Adriatic. For this reason, we frequently see Liguria and Venetia on maps, coloured separately from Cisalpine Gaul.

Cispadane Gaul, Gaul on this side the Po, (with Liguria,) Transpadane, beyond the Po, (with Venetia.)

Central Italy,
Italy proper, original
and aboriginal.

Central Italy was the original and proper Italy of the Romans; while the Grecians at first applied the name to Grecian Italy, or South Italy. But finally both Greeks

and Romans included under the name, both Gaul in the north, and Magna Græcia in the south.

Tuscania, Tuscia, Etruria, Tyrrhenia, all for the same country. The inhabitants of all these districts of Central Italy, must be considered aboriginal, since they cannot be distinctly traced to their origin. How far they differed in laws, language, and manners, we cannot ascertain, as the Romans very early diffused among them their own laws, language, and institutions; in other words, all these people were early *romanized*.

The imposing name of Magna Græcia, (Great Greece) implies the prevalence of Greek population in the south of Italy, and in the island of Sicily. It was chiefly the coasts however that were settled by the Greeks, while the barbarous Lucani, Bruttii, Calabri, Apulii, &c., occupied the interior. It was a long time before the Romans conflicted with these people.

The main design of Virgil, in his poem called the *Æneid*, was to compliment his patron Augustus Cæsar, and, in fact, the whole Latin people, with a divine descent from the Trojan *Æneas*, the son of *Venus*. But sober history rejects the fiction, and we can barely recognize a distinct Latin nation, without pretending to define in what respects, except in name and geographical position, they differed from their near neighbours, the *Volsci*, *Rutuli*, *Æqui*, and *Sabini*, with whom they long contended under the Roman banners, and with whom they often joined in rebelling against the Romans.

First period, 250 years, beginning A.U.C. 1.—A.M. 3250—B.C. 750, 7 Kings. Romulus. Rejecting the fictions of the poets, we may soberly regard *Romulus* as the founder of Rome, which he peopled with fugitives and banditti, *Sabines*, &c. while he made some small conquests. *Numa Pompilius*. The peaceful *Numa* was the author of the Roman sacred rites and mysteries. *Tullus Hostilius*, by destroying *Alba*, the former chief city of the *Latins* was the founder of the Roman supremacy over the other Latin tribes. *Ancus Martius*, after conquering to the sea, founded the Roman port of *Ostia*, at the mouth of the *Tiber*.

This period of Roman history is full of marvels and fictions. It is only clear that the kings made a slow and painful progress in conquering the petty states around them, who continually rebelled.

The most important institution was that of the centuries by *Servius Tullius*—New conquests, and new institutions will come in rapid succession, in the next period till the world will be *romanized*.

Tarquin the First established the Roman supremacy over the *Tuscans*, distant *Sabines*, &c.; founded the famous capitol, and other public edifices. *Servius Tullius* preserved the Roman supremacy over the neighbouring states, and artfully classed the citizens by centuries, regarding alone the qualifications of property, in fixing the influence each century should have in the election. *Tarquin the Proud* was expelled for abusing his power, and was assisted several years by the neighbouring states in trying to recover his throne. But monarchy was abolished, and a commonwealth substituted, two annual consuls taking the place of the kings. 3494 A.M.

History of Carthage to A.M. 3500.

Carthage may have been founded in 3135, but the time is uncertain. Queen Dido, and her Tyrian train, may flourish in poetic fancy, the original founders of this singular community; but the historian can do no more than recognize in the Carthaginian race, a Tyrian descent, and a true hereditary spirit of commercial jealousy, and grasping enterprise. Authentic history first discovers this great people, not in the act of measuring out the bounds of their future capital with thongs of a bull's-hide, but already grown up to maturity, wealth, and strength. The Carthaginians carried on a lucrative commerce with all parts of the then known world. They governed a great extent of country on the African coast; and early possessed Spain, Sardinia, and some cities in Sicily. Their unfortunate expedition against the Grecian cities in Sicily, together with their wars and final conquest by the Romans, belong to another period of history.

Important Dates and Events from 3000 to 3500.

The dismemberment of the kingdom of Israel, in 3029; the building of Rome, 3251; the supposed dismemberment of the ancient Assyrian Empire, in 3257; the commencement of the first captivity, and destruction of the kingdom of Syria, by Tiglath-Pileser, in 3264; the destruction of the kingdom of Israel, and completion of the first captivity, in 3283; the restoration of Babylon to the Assyrian Empire, by Esarhad-don, in 3324; the destruction of Nineveh, and commencement of the Babylonish dynasty, in 3379, twenty-one years before Nebuchadnezzar began to reign alone, in 3400; the commencement of the second captivity by Nebuchadnezzar, who took Daniel and other captives, in 3398, two years before he became sole king; the death of Nabopolassar, in 3400, when Nebuchadnezzar began to reign alone; the captivity of Jehoiachin, six years after the commencement of Nebuchadnezzar's sole reign, in 3406; the destruction of Jerusalem, by Nebuchadnezzar, and the completion of the second captivity, in 3416; 3426 was about the middle of the siege of Tyre, which lasted thirteen years; Nebuchadnezzar had overrun Egypt, and finished all his expeditions, about 3436; some suppose that Cyrus first commenced his wars, about 3446, against Neriglissar, then reigning at Babylon; Cyrus conquered Cræsus, and added the kingdom of Lydia to the Median and Persian dominions, in 3456; Cyrus took Babylon, and put an end to the Babylonish or Assyrian Empire, in 3466; in 3468, Cyrus, by the death of his uncle Cyaxares, became sole monarch of the vast dominions, before possessed and conquered by himself and his uncle jointly; and here commences the Persian Empire. In the same year, viz., 3468, Cyrus released the captive Jews, and permitted them to return to their own

country; twenty years afterward, in the reign of Darius Hystaspes, in 3488, the second temple was finished; in 3495, the kings were expelled from Rome, and the Pisistratidæ from Athens; 3500, hostilities commenced between the Persians and Grecians.

Continuation of the History, from 3500, A.M., to the time of Augustus, 4004, A.M.

We find the civilized world, at the period on which we now enter, occupied by two great empires, founded by two conquering nations—Persia in the east, Carthage in the west;—the Greek Republics holding a middle position,—the power of Rome, which in the end wrests the empire from them all, as yet limited to a territory within sight of her own walls.

A.M. 3500. This year is distinguished by occurrences important as
 B.C. 504. leading eventually to the desperate struggle between Greece and Persia. Aristagoras, tyrant of Miletus, having engaged the Persian satrap Artaphernes in an unsuccessful expedition against the island of Naxos, and apprehensive of punishment in consequence of its failure, instigated the people of Miletus, and of other Ionic cities, to revolt from the Persian dominion. Athens, as the mother state of the Ionic colonies, was induced to render assistance to the revolted towns; but after a few years the rebellion was quelled, and the Ionians again reduced to subjection. Thus was kindled the war which ultimately involved all the states of Greece, and which is termed the GRECIAN AND PERSIAN WAR. After having sent in vain to require earth and water as a token of submission, the Persians reduced the Greek islands, and with an army of 110,000 men, under Datis the Mede, invaded Attica. At Marathon they were met by a band of 10,000 Athenians, led by Miltiades and entirely defeated. A grand impulse was thus given to Greece, which served to awaken her ambition, to give her a knowledge of her strength, and to confer on Athens that pre-eminence among her sister states, which she so nobly sustained. For ten years the Persians did not again invade Greece, and Darius dying, in the mean time, was succeeded by his son Xerxes. From his vast dominions this prince collected an army of 2,000,000 of men, passed with great pomp through Asia Minor, and arriving at the Hellespont, constructed a bridge of boats, over which his army passed into Europe. The Thracians and Macedonians having been compelled to follow in his train, he arrived without obstruction at Thermopylae, a narrow pass in Mount Œta, of only 25 feet in width, between Phocis and Thessaly. For three days this pass was successfully defended by the Spartan Leoni-

Ionians subdued. A.M. 3505. B.C. 499

Persians invade Greece. A.M. 3510. B.C. 494.

Defeat at Marathon. A.M. 3515. B.C. 489.

Xerxes succeeds to the Persian throne.

Enters Greece

A.M. 3525.
B.C. 479. das with 10,000 men. But when it was discovered that a secret path had been made known to the Persians, through which the mountain might be passed by their army, this force was dismissed, with the exception of 300 Lacedemonians, who, together with their king, remained, and were destroyed, with the exception of one man. The news of this defeat was received by the Grecian fleet, which had just been engaged in an indecisive battle off the promontory of Artemesium, and caused it to return southward to the Saronic gulf. The Persians having gained the strait of Thermopylae, termed from its importance *the key to Greece*, proceeded through Phocis and Beotia, entered Attica, and arriving at Athens, laid the city, which had been deserted by the inhabitants, in ruins. While the city was in flames, Themistocles defeated the Persian fleet at Salamis, and Xerxes in terror fled from Greece, leaving, however, an army of 300,000 men under Mardonius to effect the conquest of Greece. Three months afterwards, the total defeat of this force at Plataea by the Greeks under Pausanias and Aristides, liberated the Greeks from all fear, and, indeed, from the presence of their invaders. On the same day Xantippus and Leotychides defeated and burned the Persian fleet at Mycale. The war, however, continued until 3555, when it was terminated by the double victory obtained by sea and land over the Persians at the mouth of the Eurymedon, in Pamphylia, by Cimon the son of Miltiades.

The Persian invasion had produced a certain degree of union among the Greeks; the Athenians and Spartans, however, soon returned to their ancient rivalry. The latter had enjoyed the nominal command in all the battles in which they had been jointly concerned, but Athens had acquired the greater glory. Themistocles proposed to rebuild Athens, and in place of its wooden walls, to surround it with walls of stone. This the Spartans opposed, assigning as a reason, that within those walls the Persians, if victorious, might securely establish themselves. Themistocles, however, by his address, obtained his end, without involving the two states in open hostilities.

In the year 3525 commences what we term Grecian retaliation for the Persian invasion. Cimon, who was conspicuous in his youth at Salamis, will for thirty years be the champion of Greece, and the deliverer of the Greek islands and coasts from the yoke of Persia.

For twenty years from the termination of the Persian war, the states of Athens and Sparta were engaged in continual bickerings, jealousies, and slight skirmishes, which, in 3573, broke out into open war. The immediate cause of this contest was a dispute between Corcyra and her colony Dyrrachium. Corinth interfered in favour of Dyrrachium, and Athens in favour of Corcyra. Sparta, of course, was with Corinth against Athens, and ultimately all Greece engaged in the struggle.

During this war the scene of action was frequently changed, the military operations being confined at particular times to particular regions.

First scene.—*Attica* and the *Peloponnesus*, Reciprocal invasions for six years.

Second scene.—*Ionian Sea*, and the *west coast of Greece*, around *Corcyra*. Connected with this was the expedition of *Demosthenes* the general, into *Ætolia* and *Locris*, and the siege of *Pylus*.

Third scene.—Coasts of *Macedon* and the *Chalcidice*, whose inhabitants having been reduced, again revolt against *Athens*. Here the *Spartans* are victorious, particularly in the battle of *Amphipolis*, 3583. After this the war is closed, and a truce concluded for fifty years, called the peace of *Nicias*, from the *Athenian* ambassador. *Corinth*, *Argos*, and other states, dissatisfied with the truce, formed a league, called the *Argive league*, which agitated the period of six years, while the general war was suspended.

Fourth scene.—*Sicily*. A great part of the four following years was spent in a fruitless expedition to *Sicily*. *Alcibiades* went thither to protect the *Ionian* cities against the *Dorian* city of *Syracuse*, which was supported by *Corinth* and *Sparta*. After a series of unparalleled vicissitudes, the *Dorians* were triumphant, the *Athenians* lost their fleet, and the whole army was either destroyed by military excursions, or miserably perished in dungeons.

Fifth scene.—The *Ægean Sea*. The war was commenced here by the *Spartans*, who went to deliver its islands and coasts from the *Athenians*, as *Cimon* had from the *Persians*. We now introduce the *Persians* for the first time as a party. *Darius Nothus* was then reigning, and his subjects had not forgotten the enmity of their fathers against *Athens*; they still remembered *Marathon* and *Salamis*. We have now to reproduce *Alcibiades*, who having been accused of sacrilege, had been ordered home to *Athens* from *Sicily* to receive the reward of his crime. Instead of obeying, he went to *Sparta*, where he remained some time; but being driven thence, at last he fled to *Asia Minor*, and persuaded *Tissaphernes* to furnish him with means to aid *Athens*. This was done, and after a series of victories, he went home and was received with applause and acclamations. But while he was on a visit to the *Persian* satrap, his fleet was defeated by the *Spartans*. This roused the resentment of *Athens*, and *Alcibiades* was again driven into exile. The *Athenians* were victorious until 3600, when *Cimon* was surprised, and his fleet destroyed by *Lysander*, in the battle of *Ægos Potamos* who subsequently invested *Athens*, which he took after a siege of three months, and the *Peloponnesian war* was closed. *Athens* sinks in the dust, *Sparta* domineers over all *Greece*, and becomes the object of universal odium for forty-one years. This period of *Spartan* dominion may be divided into three parts, viz.

Fortunes of
Alcibiades.

Peloponnesian war closed.
A.M. 3600.
B.C. 404.

- | | |
|---|----------------|
| 10 Years rigid, rugged, undisputed dominion | } over Greece. |
| 23 " superiority disputed and painfully supported | |
| 8 " dominion feebly asserted | |

Thirty tyrants devoted to the interest of *Sparta* were placed in 3600 over the prostrate *Athenians*, and the streets of their city were infested with spies subservient to their cruel conquerors. But by a secret and

daring plan the intrepid Thrasybulus, 3601, delivered them from the despotism of these tyrants.

The history of the principal personages who figured in the Persian and Peloponnesian wars, may be summarily related as follows:—

MILTIADES.—The battle of Marathon covered Miltiades with glory. But failing in an attack upon Paros, and returning dangerously wounded, he was accused of treason, and sentenced to pay a fine of fifty talents—about \$50,000. Unable to pay this fine, he was thrown into prison, where, in a few days, he died of his wounds.

THEMISTOCLES was a man of splendid military and political talents, and the head of the democratic party. Ambitious to the last degree, he hesitated at no measure which he supposed might contribute to his advancement, and the ruin of his rivals. Still he loved his country, and chose to rise by promoting her glory and greatness.

ARISTIDES, the head of the aristocratic party, and the rival of Themistocles, though he did not exhibit the address and versatile talents of that great man, possessed very eminent abilities. In uprightness and disinterested devotion to the public good, he stood without a superior among the virtuous great men of antiquity. When banished by the Ostracism, he raised his hands to heaven, and exclaimed, "May my country never have occasion to regret Aristides."

PAUSANIAS, one of the victors at Platæa, notwithstanding his military talents, was too much the slave of his own selfishness and arrogance, to maintain the leading influence which he once possessed. His pride and cupidity led him into the commission of treasonable practices. Taking refuge from the indignation of his countrymen, in the temple of Minerva, he perished of starvation; his sanctuary having been surrounded by a wall, of which his own mother, with the true Spartan spirit, laid the first stone.

The character of Leonidas is written in the sacrifice of Thermopylæ.

CIMON was the son of Miltiades, and appears to have been equally distinguished for his talents and his virtue. His military career was marked by a series of the most splendid victories, which humbled the mighty Persian empire, and made his country illustrious and powerful. He possessed a "generosity of character, which delighted equally in acts of private bounty, and of public munificence."

PERICLES for forty years controlled the Athenian mind, directed the Athenian taste, and appropriated the spoil that Cimon, the successful and brilliant warrior had won, and the treasures, intended as a common fund, to the embellishment of Athens. Pericles employed the genius of Phidias, the greatest of the Greek sculptors, to adorn the temples and other buildings with statues. He ruled the people by his address and elegance, taste, wealth, and munificence. But his ambition carried him too far; through his influence, Athens was led to the most unjust exactions from her allies, and finally, 3573, plunged into the Peloponnesian war. He was a consummate orator and statesman, perhaps unmatched in address. Amidst all his ambition and vanity, he seems to have loved his country; and he boasted on his death-bed, that

he had never caused an Athenian to put on mourning. He died, 3575, in the second year of the Peloponnesian war.

In the year 3602, we have the expedition of Cyrus the younger, governor of Asia Minor, against his brother Artaxerxes, king of Persia. Having collected an army of 100,000 barbarians, and 13,000 Greeks, under pretence of subduing some tribes north of the Black Sea, he marched to Cunaxa, where he met his brother. A battle ensued, in which Cyrus was killed, in single combat with the enraged king, and the army of the Greeks reduced to 10,000. Finding themselves deserted by the Persians, and their generals treacherously murdered, they chose *Xenophon* for their leader, and commenced their march homeward. Before them are the savages of Asia, behind them a hostile army. Over mountains, across rivers, through deserts, they directed their course to Trebizond, the nearest Greek settlement. From thence they went home by water, and were ready to engage with Sparta, against the king of Persia, in a war to deliver the Greeks of Asia Minor from his yoke.

For six years, from 3604 to 3610, this war was carried on in Asia Minor—the Spartans always victorious. At the same time, Sparta was exercising her authority with a high and tyrannical hand over Greece. In consequence of this oppression, the Corinthian league, to which Persia was a party, was formed, between Corinth, Thebes, and Argos. Agesilaus, the king of Sparta, was recalled from Asia Minor, to defend his country against the formidable power of this league. From this time, the Spartan supremacy declined; and Athens, having been delivered from the thirty tyrants, was finally restored by Conon to some degree of importance. Her long exercised dominion of the sea was recovered, and, by means of Spartan spoils, her prostrate walls were rebuilt.

In 3617 the Spartans made peace with the Persians, in the treaty of Antalcidas, in which the Persians agreed to abandon all the Greek cities, and engaged to protect Sparta.

In 3623 a Spartan army, on its way to Thrace, entered Thebes under the mask of friendship, seized its towers and citadel, and for nearly five years kept possession of the city. In 3627, in a most heroic and daring enterprise, it was delivered by Pelopidas and Epaminondas. After trying for several years to recover the city, the Spartans entered Bæotia, 3633, and at Leuctra were completely defeated by the Thebans.

The Thessalians, oppressed by the tyranny of Alexander, of Pheræ, invited Pelopidas to their deliverance. Being defeated and taken prisoner in the first engagement, he was liberated by Epaminondas, and afterwards, a second time encountering Alexander in battle, he defeated him, but was slain in the pursuit. Between his two Thessalian campaigns, he had been despatched to Macedon to adjust the claims of the rival sons of Amyntas, and, on his return to Thebes, he brought with him as a hostage, Philip, the youngest son of the king.

The Thebans, under Epaminondas, entered Laconia and pursued

Expedition of
Cyrus the
younger
A.M. 3602.
B.C. 402.

Retreat of the
10,000.
A.M. 3603.
B.C. 401.

Spartans
seize Thebes.
A.M. 3623.
B.C. 381.

Battle of
Leuctra.
A.M. 3633.
B.C. 381.

A.M. 3634.
B.C. 370.

Pelopidas
goes to Thes-
saly and Ma-
cedonia.

the Spartans to the gates of their capital, where, "for the first time, the Spartan women beheld the smoke of an enemy's camp." Soon after this, the Thebans vanquished the Spartans at Mantinea, but in the battle lost their leader Epaminondas.

In the year 3644, Philip stole from Thebes, and, at the age of twenty, gained possession of the throne of Macedon. To the natural fierceness and vigor of the barbarian, he united all the accomplishments that Grecian literature could bestow, having enjoyed all the advantages of instruction, under the wisest sages of the brightest age of Greece—heard the most illustrious philosophers, and witnessed the military operations of the greatest generals. Cool, politic, shrewd, wily, ambitious, and enterprising, his address and dexterity have, perhaps, never been equalled. He had to establish a throne claimed by several competitors supported by neighbouring states, to reform his court, and to introduce civilization among a people until then uncivilized.

The Athenians, now the chief power in Greece, owned towns on the coast of Macedon, and consequently Philip was always at variance with Athens. His efforts were also directed against the city of Byzantium, and the Athenian towns on the Hellespont and the Propontis. He next turned his arms against the Thessalians, a distracted, refractory people, whose country he subdued, and added to Macedon. The Epirotes, Illyrians, Thracians, Mygdonians, and Pæonians were his enemies. By the year 3656, he had overrun them all; attacked Euba, taken Olynthus, and marched victorious to the gates of Greece; when here, he was invited to act as umpire between the contending parties in the sacred war, assisted in subduing the sacrilegious Phocians, was made a member of the Amphictyonic council, and twice defended the consecrated ground at Delphi from violation.

Leaving the pass of Thermopylae defended, he returned home to devote himself to the internal improvement of his kingdom, and the organization of his troops and court. In 3666 he again entered Greece, fell upon Elatea, a strong place, took it, and put there a garrison. This roused the Athenians and Thebans, who united in a league against him, but were defeated by him at *Cheronæa*. After treating the subdued Greeks with the greatest lenity, he assembled them at Corinth, recited their former injuries from Persia, and offered to put himself at their head, and march into Asia. He reminded them of the aggressions of the Persians, of the inroad of Xerxes with his millions, and the glorious triumph at Marathon; of Miltiades, with his little handful of men, overcoming 110,000 Persians; of Leonidas, with his 300, resisting, and giving his life rather than have the land tarnished with the footsteps of a barbarian. The Athenians bowed to Philip, and appointed him their generalissimo. With the greatest general that ever lived, and the most spirited troops that ever a general had, he thought of nothing but glory and victory. But in the midst of this successful career, he was assassin-

Mantineæ.
A.M. 3641.
B.C. 363.

Character of
Philip.

The progress
of his arms.

A.M. 3650.
B.C. 354.

Battle of
Cheronæa.
A.M. 3666.
B.C. 338.

Philip pre-
pares to
march into
Asia.

Is assassin-
ed, A.M. 3668.

B.C. 336. Alexander succeeds him. ated by Pausanias, and his son Alexander succeeded to his throne, 3668.

Before Alexander could embark for Asia, he had to reconquer Greece. Having taken the city of Thebes, burned it to the ground, and sold its inhabitants into slavery, which terrified the other cities into submission, he passed into Asia, and in 3671 gained the battle of the *Granicus*, and conquered Asia Minor. Pursuing his victorious career, in 3672, he gained the pass of *Issus*, the key to Syria. Marching southward, he laid siege to Tyre, which, after an obstinate resistance of seven months, yielded to his arms. Gaza, after a siege of three months, opened her gates, and without any farther obstruction, he entered Egypt. Returning from Egypt, at *Arbela*, 3673, he met and completely overwhelmed the king of Persia, subverted the Persian, and founded the *Macedonian empire*.

In the organization of this vast empire, Alexander first marched into the east to receive the submission of the countries subject to the Persian dominion, then returned to Babylon, which he aimed at restoring to its ancient splendour, and making the seat of empire. But here, in the midst of mirth, revelry, and intoxication, his projects were abruptly terminated by death, 3681.

A.M. 3681. B.C. 323. The generals of Alexander, all unprincipled and ambitious men, were anxious for a division of the empire; but that being a delicate and difficult thing, they set up two mock kings, Philip Aridaeus and Alexander Ægus; one an idiot, and the other an infant. The authority of their guardians, Eumenes and Perdicas, was disputed. Perdicas was killed in trying to subdue Ptolemy of Egypt, and Eumenes was pursued from province to province, the whole extent of the empire, by the other generals, until 3689, when he was betrayed by his own soldiers, and delivered to his enemies.

After the death of Eumenes, Antigonus looked upon himself as lord of Asia, and in the course of nine years found himself so. The principal resistance he met with was from Ptolemy of Egypt, with whom he contended about Syria, Palestine and Cyprus. It was soon discovered that his grasping ambition was not to be satisfied with Asia alone. He, or rather his son, marched into Europe, took Athens from Cassander, besieged Rhodes, conquered most of the Peloponnesus, destroyed the family of Alexander, and, 3698, assumed the title of king, which last example was followed by the other generals.

Ptolemy, Seleucus, Lysimachus, and Cassander, united their forces, power and means against Antigonus and his son Demetrius. At the battle of *Ipsus*, Antigonus was killed, and Demetrius fled from the scene of their defeat. But though he had lost Asia, he still retained Egypt, Greece, Tyre and Sidon. Before the battle, he had been received and adored as a god in Greece; but after he came from Asia Minor, the ports of Greece were shut against his fleet, and the gates against his army. He then went to Thrace, plundered the cities subject to Lysimachus, returned, and was

Adventures of Demetrius Poliorcetes. again deified at Athens, where he heard that he had lost Cyprus. He next received a message from Alexander of

Macedon, requesting his assistance against Lysimachus; but by the time he arrived at the scene of contest, the storm had blown over, and Alexander told him he did not need his services; Demetrius answered, however, he would stay and feast with him. He did so, and at a signal, his troops entered, slew Alexander, and Demetrius became king of Macedon. Thinking he could now fulfil the ambitious designs of his father, he prepared to invade Asia, but was opposed by Lysimachus and Pyrrhus. From them he fled to Seleucus for aid, and by him was confined on an island, where he ended his days in hunting and feasting. After the battle of Ipsus, what is called the

Final division of Alexander's empire. FINAL DIVISION OF *Alexander's empire* took place. To *Ptolemy* were given EGYPT, LYBIA, PALESTINE, and CÆLO-SYRIA.

To *Seleucus*, ASIA, except Palestine, Pergamus, and Bithynia; *Lysimachus* had THRACE, PERGAMUS, and BITHYNIA; *Cassander*, MACEDON and GREECE. The world became Hellenized. The Greek language and culture prevailed wherever there were Greek princes; and there were Greek princes wherever Alexander had conquered. From the death of Alexander until this period, the world had been one scene of carnage and slaughter; mankind became accustomed to cruelty, wantonness, bloodshed, and crime, and Alexander's fifty generals were reduced to four.

MACEDON AFTER THE DIVISION OF THE EMPIRE. Cassander married Thessalonica, the sister of Alexander; and the court, during his reign, and that of his three sons, presents a scene of horror almost unparalleled in the pages of history. To him succeeded Demetrius, who was attacked and driven out by Lysimachus and Pyrrhus.

The latter soon expelled the former and reigned alone. Then we have old Seleucus from Asia, then Meleager, Ceraunus, Antipater, Sosthenes, and ultimately we have the family of Demetrius restored in the person of Antigonus Gonatus. All these kings succeeded in the space of twenty-two years, during which time there were but two kings in Egypt and three in Asia.

By the year 3750 we have passed the Macedonian period, and arrived at the Roman, Achaean, and Parthian.

The Achaean League was a union of twelve cities ostensibly for common defence against the kings of Macedon, but it

was of no importance until Aratus, a celebrated son of Sicyone, by a bold enterprise delivered the city from a domestic tyrant and united it to the league, 3760.

At this time Athens, Corinth, and Sparta, were fettered by Macedonian Garrisons. Aratus, in the night, climbed the wall of Corinth, surprised the army of Antigonus, delivered the city, and Corinth became a part of the league. Through the exertions of Aratus, the Argolians, Messenians, and Athenians, also joined it. This was the *last organization of Greece*, and in it, as actors, we have Aratus and Philopœmen, who are called the *last of the Greeks*. From this time there is a constant struggle between Macedon and the league; but on the part of the league without one rational object being accomplished for which it was formed. During its entire existence the members of it were at

war with each other, or embroiled with the savage Ætolians and the Spartans. Finally we see them admitting Antigonus Doson into their country, and giving him a free passage through the isthmus of Corinth to fight their battles with the Spartans, whom he defeated in the famous battle of Sellasia. This scene of confusion continued until the arrival of the Romans under Flaminius. Having defeated Philip of Macedon in the battle of Cynocephale, 3808, he proclaimed all Greece free and independent. This procured for the Romans the name of the patrons of Greece, and insensibly paved the way to their universal dominion. In a second Macedonian war, the Romans were again victorious, and having gained the battle of Pydna, carried Perseus, the last king of Macedon, in chains to Rome.

Cynocephale.

A.M. 3808.

B.C. 196.

Pydna.

A.M. 3836.

B.C. 168.

A.M. 3500.

The history of Rome under its kings belongs to the former period; at the commencement of the present, 3494, two consuls were elected with power equal to that of the kings. The senate were a regularly organized body, whose power continued to increase for many ages. The people at this time being divided into two orders, *patricians* and *plebeians*, the consuls were chosen from the former, and united the sacerdotal with the political office. For fifteen years the Romans struggled against the attempts of their king Tarquin, and at the same time a contest was carried on amongst themselves, growing out of the distinction of patrician and plebeian. The patricians had the preponderance in their elections, because the people voted in artificial classes called centuries. The plebeians, 3511, retired to Mons Sacer. To satisfy them the office of *tribune* was created; but the tribunes were possessed of mere negative restraining power. They were not permitted to come into the senate-house, but were allowed only to sit at the door; they could not propose any law, but they could stop the consuls and senators from proceeding in any measure. To prevent the confounding of distinct offices, we may mention that there were two principal kinds of tribunes, viz. *military tribunes*, with military power; *popular tribunes*, with mere negative power; to these for a period may be added *consular tribunes*.

Office of

Tribune.

A.M. 3511.

B.C. 493.

At last, 3537, military tribunes were no more elected; and it was resolved to have two consuls, one from the patricians, and the other from the plebeians, with power to call together the senate, the army, and the people, 3555. In the time of the great Pericles the

Decemviri.

A.M. 3555.

B.C. 499.

Decemviri were elected, with authority to frame a code of laws, which were called the twelve tables; but they abused their power, and the office was soon abolished. Another office was that of *Dictator*, a magistrate invested with unlimited power.

Dictator.

All other offices were partially suspended, and the dictator was absolute master of the lives, liberty, and fortunes of the Roman people. If there were convulsions in the city, he would still them in a moment. When the army had met with great disasters, and it was necessary to make great exertions, he could command the persons and purses of the citizens.

Censor.

The office of *Censor*, simple at first, was afterwards of great power and dignity. The first business of the Censor

was to take an account of the people and their estates; then to examine into the morals of public men, with power even to expel a senator.

Praeter. The *Praetor*, treasurer, commissary, provider, took care of the funds, and provided for the army.

Aediles. *Aediles* had the care of the public buildings. There were

Vestals. also *Vestals*, who took care of the sacred fire. The plebeians could not exercise any sacerdotal power; wherefore, after the plebeians were admitted to the consulate, the Romans created separate

Pontiffs. officers called *Pontiffs*, with the highest ecclesiastical power.

The *Agrarian Law* was a source of eternal contest. The Romans had been going on in one uninterrupted series of conquests, and had always appropriated a part of the conquered lands to themselves. These were put up for sale, and of course bought by the patricians, who had farms all over Italy. A law was made forbidding any person's having more than 500 acres of land; the surplus was given to the poor.

A.M. 3614. The Romans, for about 500 years from the foundation of the city, were surrounded by enemies—the Gauls in the north, the states of Magna Graecia in the south, and the Tuscans, Umbrians, Samnites and Latins, their nearer neighbours. Courage was common to them all, but the cunning of the Romans enabled them to gain the ascendancy. The Gauls, 3614, besieged Clusium. The

Rome burned by the Gauls Romans sent ambassadors commanding them to return, which they, however, disregarding, marched to Rome, took the city and burned it.

The Romans, who had always been at peace with the Samnites, were invited to protect the city of Capua, which was attacked by the enemy. Upon their refusing, the Capuans surrendered their city, saying that the Romans would surely protect their own. The consequence was, a war with the Samnites for ten years.

At war with the Samnites. The Romans next turned their arms against the Tarentines, a Spartan colony, who applied for assistance to Greece. The great Pyrrhus was sent to their aid. But the Romans were always ultimately victorious; and in Italy the usual good fortune of Pyrrhus forsook him. In admiration of the Roman valour, he was heard to exclaim, "With what ease could I conquer the world, had I the Romans for soldiers, or had they me for their king."

Defeat Pyrrhus. By the year 3740, the Romans had conquered all Italy, and their career of foreign glory commences by a successful war with Carthage.

The Roman sun is rising in splendour, and the Grecian sun is setting.

The famous year 3750, is the tenth year of the *first Punic war*, by which *Sicily* and the *dominion of the sea* is transferred from Carthage to Rome. By the *second Punic war*, which terminates 3803, the *Empire of the West* is transferred to Rome. By the third, terminating 3858, the *city of Carthage* is laid in ruins.

The first Punic war was not sufficiently interesting for detail. The

period of the second was distinguished by two of the greatest kings of that *fallen, degenerate* age, viz. Philip of Macedon, and Antiochus the Great. These, together with Hannibal the Carthaginian, had a common hatred to the Romans, and were successively humbled by them—Hannibal in 3803, Philip 3808, Antiochus 3813.

At the commencement of these wars, the Carthaginians possessed a coast of 1000 miles in Africa, and rich mines in Spain; they were masters of the sea, and their commerce and conquests were rapidly extending throughout the world. With a jealous eye, their progress was viewed by the Romans, until Hannibal, the governor of Spain, burning with revenge, and animated by a thirst for glory, laid siege to Saguntum, a city under the protection of Rome. This was considered a declaration of war. Saguntum was taken, and its flames kindled two worlds. Hannibal advanced along the coasts of Spain and Gaul, into Italy, conquering as he went. Before him all was consternation, and behind him the wasteful effects of his plundering army.

At *Trebia*, in the north of Italy, he entirely defeated the Romans, at *Thrasimene* he was again victorious, and at *Cannae*, the slaughter of Roman nobles was so great, that three bushels of gold rings were collected and sent to Carthage. Hannibal, pursuing his triumphant course to the very gates of Rome, there waited for aid from Spain and Macedon. But the Romans, instead of again meeting him in the open field, sent their armies to prevent his allies from joining him. Having lost two large armies, and two of their best generals, they now sent the younger Scipio, 3800, with an army into Spain. After conquering the country, he returned home, and proposed to conduct an army into Africa; in this, though he was opposed by all the elders of the senate, he finally prevailed. Hannibal, after keeping possession of the most beautiful parts of Italy for fifteen years, was called home. The battle of Zama was fought 3803. Hannibal was defeated, and *Africa was transferred to Rome*.

Greece was now all confusion. War, bloodshed, hatred, vengeance, reigned universally. Philip of Macedon, was no better than the rest, except that he had a larger army. When the Romans sent their armies to keep him from aiding the Carthaginians, the smaller states of Greece, beaddled with the name of liberty, and being enemies of Philip, joined the *Romans*, who, in about four years, *conquered* Philip in the battle of Cyncephale, 3808, leaving him a name, a crown, and a little kingdom, on condition that he should pay them a tribute, and make no pretensions to sovereignty over his neighbours. Flaminus proclaimed liberty to all Greece—liberty to pay tribute, and serve the Romans for ever. Antiochus the Great, who was reigning in Asia, while Hannibal was gaining laurels in Italy, had been trying to recover Parthia and Asia Minor, which was divided between four petty princes. He had conquered Syria, invaded India, and would have soon subjected Asia Minor, had he not been arrested by the Romans. Hannibal, when he fled from the field of Zama, went to Asia, and became the counsellor of Antiochus, advising him to attack the Romans in Sicily. He com-

Saguntum taken.

Battles of Trebia, Thrasimene, and Cannae.

Scipio conquers Spain.

Passes into Africa.

Battle of Zama. A.M. 3803. B.C. 201.

Romans conquer Philip in the battle of Cyncephale. A.M. 3808. B.C. 196.

Antiochus defeated at Magnesia. A.M. 3813. B.C. 191. commenced the war in Greece, was defeated in a naval engagement, and driven back to Asia Minor. Here the petty powers joined the Romans against him, and he was totally defeated, 3813, by Scipio Asiaticus, in the battle of Magnesia. The Egyptians, threatened by Antiochus and Philip, had already thrown themselves under *Roman protection*, when, in 3834, at the battle of Pydna, the Romans conquered Macedon, and carried Perseus, its last king, in chains to Rome.

Pydna. A.M. 3834. B.C. 170. Though the Romans had proclaimed liberty to Greece, in 3858, they destroyed Corinth, the capital of the Achæan League, and reduced the country to subjection. The same year Scipio Africanus the Younger, terminated the third Punic war by taking the city of Carthage.

The whole world is Roman, in bondage to the Roman senate. There were kings, many kings, but all trembled at the Roman nod. A restless, warlike people, cannot be without employment. All foreign enemies were conquered, and we shall soon see the fatal consequences.

From A.M. 3860, B.C. 144, to A.M. 3960, B.C. 44. *Internal convulsions* shake the whole fabric of Roman power, till finally the Roman constitution is overthrown, and individuals trample the senate in the dust. Although the rule in Spain was transferred to Rome, by the successful termination of the second Punic war, it cost the Romans many hard efforts to subdue the interior and distant nations, who long resisted and often rebelled. *Numantia*, 3863, a city in the interior, assisted by the Celtiberi and Lusitani, baffled the Roman arms fourteen years. The celebrated Viriathus was leader of the Spanish confederacy, till he was treacherously killed. Tiberius *Gracchus*, 3871, by attempting to divide the lands bequeathed by Attalus, the last king of Pergamus, among the people, excited a tumult in which he was killed. Caius *Gracchus*, 3883, followed the example of his brother, and shared the same fate. Jugentha, 3893, a dependent king of *Numidia*, having braved the Roman power five years, was dragged in chains to Rome by Marcus and Sylla, where he was starved to death in a dungeon.

The *Teutones* and Cimbri savage tribes of Germany, who left the wilds of their country, with their wives, children, flocks and herds, after seeking to establish themselves in the milder climates of Gaul and Italy, and resisting the power of Rome for eight years, were annihilated, 3903, in one battle, just as they were preparing to cross the Alps, and enter Italy. The *Social War*, 3913, put to a frightful test the supremacy of Rome. This was a war between Rome and her Italian allies or *Socii*, *subjects*, called allies, who demanded the right of Roman citizenship, that is, the right of going to Rome and voting, or being elected to office. 300,000 soldiers perished in this war, which lasted until the Romans artfully weakened their enemies by yielding to *some*, what they demanded. Next *Mithridates* broke out of Pontus, overran Asia Minor and Greece, and caused to be killed

80,000 Roman citizens, that were in Asia Minor. The bloody victories of Sylla in Greece, pressed Mithridates back into Pontus. But the atrocious struggle of Marius and Sylla, for the command in this war, made Rome itself a scene of slaughter and carnage. Twice in its turn each party prevailed, and four times the streets of Rome were deluged with Roman blood. Marius prevailed the second time, while

Sylla Dictator
A. M. 3923.
B. C. 81.

his rival was in Greece; and Sylla the second time when he returned from Greece. After a war of two years, Sylla prevailed, was appointed *Dictator*, but abdicated after ruling two years.

The stage is now to be filled by new actors, viz, *Cato, Cicero, Cæsar, Pompey, and Crassus*. Pompey raised an army himself, and assisted Sylla to subdue the Marian faction in Italy; he was successively sent to *Sicily*, where he defeated *Cneus Carbo*; to Africa, where he routed and killed *Domitius*; and to Spain, where he subdued *Sertorius*, who, like Carbo, had fled from Sylla, and was trying to keep up the Marian faction. *Marcus Lepidus*, a restless, intriguing, profligate demagogue, being appointed to the consulship, after his term was expired, rushed down from Cisalpine Gaul upon Rome with his army, and was defeated.

Slaves and
Gladiators.
A. M. 3933.
B. C. 71.

Amid the confusion and disorder of these times, the slaves and gladiators of Italy and Sicily, under Spartacus, for three years desolated Italy, defeated army after army, and threatened Rome itself. When Pompey returned from Spain, Crassus was on the eve of a battle with these slaves, and by the union of their two armies these generals were victorious.

In the same year, Mithridates again broke loose in Asia Minor, was pursued by Lucullus into Armenia, and the Roman FOREIGN CONQUEST IS RESUMED. But one enemy still annoyed the Romans—the *pirates* in the Mediterranean, encouraged by Mithridates and Sertorius. In the short space of four months Pompey subdued them, and Rome again possessed the dominion of the sea. In the mean time, the soldiers of Lucullus, instigated by his brother-in-law, Clodius, mutinied, and Mithridates recovered his kingdom. In 3937 Pompey was

Mithridates
subdued.
A. M. 3937.
B. C. 67.

sent against Mithridates, and after a three-years' war, entirely subdued him. After conquering Syria, regulating Judea, and establishing the Herod family in the person of Antipater, Pompey returned to Rome, and had a triumph never before exceeded in splendour. But as if there was to be no end to horror,

Cataline's
conspiracy.
A. M. 3940.
B. C. 64.

Cataline formed a conspiracy to burn the city, and overthrow the Roman Empire. He had been disappointed in obtaining the consulship, and took this method to revenge himself on Cicero his opponent. Happily the plot was discovered, and Cataline driven from the city, 3940.

For four years, from 3940 to 3944, Rome was agitated by the flagitious quarrels and intrigues of three unprincipled men, *Pompey, Crassus and Cæsar*, who each had his partizans. The Roman Senate had before ruled, but now these three men, united, formed the *first triumvirate*, 3944, and all were obliged to submit. Cato resisted, but was dragged to prison. Pompey was a man of much enterprize and unbounded ambition, united with great dignity. He could never help displaying his superiori-

First trium-
virate.
A. M. 3944.
B. C. 60.

ty. Cæsar was cunning, intriguing, profligate, and shrewd, and capable of dissimulation. Pompey was the most honest man; he preferred honesty to dishonesty, if he could as well carry his point; but Cæsar would rather be dishonest; he liked to have a little shrewdness mixed with his dealings; he was the greater commander, and the more eloquent man. The triumvirate divided the world. Cæsar took the two Gauls; Pompey took Spain and Africa; Crassus chose Syria and the East. Italy was given nominally to the senate. Pompey had already won his laurels, and therefore remained at home. Crassus went to gather the spoils and riches of the East, and met in Parthia a most deplorable fate. Betrayed and deserted by his friends, he had seen his sons and his troops miserably perish, and was himself killed by one of his generals. Cæsar having immortalized his name in eight splendid campaigns, was commanded by Pompey to lay down his arms, disband his armies, and return to Rome. Cæsar refused to do this, unless Pompey would also disband his troops, and marched his army toward Rome. On coming to the Rubicon, the southern boundary of Gaul, to pass which was esteemed treason, Cæsar paused; but exclaiming, "the die is cast," he plunged into the river, and followed by his devoted soldiers, went like a tempest to the gates of Rome. Pompey and the senate escaped to Greece, where they were joined by Cato, who hated both generals, but thought Pompey the least dangerous. Thus commenced the *civil war* between Pompey and Cæsar.

First civil
war.
A.M. 3951.
B.C. 53.

Battle of
Pharsalia.
A.M. 3956.
B.C. 48.

Egypt.

Rome and Italy submitted to Cæsar; but Pompey had two powerful armies in Spain, which Cæsar had to conquer. After accomplishing this, he passed into Greece, where at Dyrrachium he was defeated; but collecting his forces, he totally overthrew Pompey in the great battle of *Pharsalia*, 3956. Pompey fled into Egypt, where he was assassinated. Thus ended the personal contest between the rivals. After the battle, Cæsar went to Egypt and espoused the cause of Cleopatra, against her husband and brother, Ptolémy Dionysius, conquered him, and placed *Egypt* under *Roman dictation*. Pharnaces, son of Mithridates the Great, who had joined Pompey, was next conquered by Cæsar. It was after this conquest that he wrote his much celebrated letter, VENI; VIDI; VICI;—*I came; I saw; I conquered*. After this Cæsar returned to Italy, from whence he went to Africa, where was a remnant of Pompey's party, under Cato and Scipio. After fighting several battles, he defeated his enemies at Thapsus, returned to Rome, from whence he embarked for Spain, where he conquered Pompey's two sons, Cneius and Sextus.

Cæsar lord of
the world.

Cæsar was now master of the world. But Brutus and Cassius were republicans, and the enemies of Cæsar. His love of power, and his display of that love, together with a rumour that he was going to assume the title of king, induced Brutus and Cassius, with sixty senators, to form a dark conspiracy, which on the ides of March, 3960, accomplished his death. But he left behind him associates worse than himself, who were ready to avenge him. His nephew, Octavius, a youth of eighteen, but with as much deliberate coolness as sixty years could

Assassinated.
A.M. 3960.

have given him, undertook to revenge his uncle's death, and found himself opposed by Marc Antony. Octavius saw the distressed state of the empire, with the senate on one side and Marc Antony on the other. By pretending to be a simple-hearted republican, he won Cicero and the senate, and in the battle of Mutina defeated Antony and drove him into Gaul. Repenting of his rashness, he wrote a very tender letter to Antony, desiring his friendship, and requesting him to return. This request being complied with, Antony, Octavius, and Lepidus met on an island. Before they rushed into each other's bosoms, however, they took the precaution to send their respective servants, each to search the person of his master's friend, lest he should carry a concealed dagger. After dividing the power among themselves, their first work was to annihilate their enemies. The friends of one were, in some cases, the enemies of the other, and each surrendered these

Second tri-
umvirate.
A.M. 3961.
B.C. 43.

friends. Their union, 3961, was called the *second triumvirate*, and the world was subject to them. But Brutus and

Philippi.
A.M. 3962.
B.C. 42.

Cassius were still in the East, collecting armies and upholding the standard of resistance. Antony and Augustus collected their forces in the west. In 3962 they met at *Philippi*. Brutus had his army, Cassius had his; Antony had his army, and Augustus had his. The army of Cassius alone was defeated; but thinking Brutus too was conquered, he killed himself. In twenty days there was another battle, in which Brutus was defeated and fell on his sword. Antony and Augustus now divided the world between them. Antony took Greece, Asia, and Egypt; Augustus, Spain, Gaul, Italy and Africa. This state of affairs continued for ten years, during which time Antony lived in Egypt, with Cleopatra, neglecting his part of the empire, and allowing his armies to be defeated in Parthia. Augustus in the meanwhile was actively engaged. He marched his army into the north of Italy, laid waste a district of twenty miles, drove out the unoffending inhabitants, and planted his soldiers there. Among the number deprived of their farms, was the father of the poet Virgil; but his son, by celebrating in his poems the praises of Augustus, was reinstated in his patrimony. Augustus was always cool and calculating, prepared for any emergency; while Antony was dissipated and profligate, and spent his time in the meanest pleasures. Augustus with his fleet went to Greece; Cleopatra, with a fleet of sixty ships, accompanied Antony in pursuit of him.

Actium.
A.M. 3974.
B.C. 30.

A naval engagement ensued at *Actium*, 3974, when Cleopatra, from a mere whim, gave the signal for flight, and Antony, finding himself deserted, followed her, and left Augustus the victory. Cleopatra fearing she should be carried to Rome to grace the triumph of the conqueror, built an enormous pile, on which she placed herself, determined, if Octavius took the place, to set fire to it. Antony understanding that she was dead, stabbed himself; but he being informed that she was still alive, caused himself by means of ropes to be taken into the tower, that he might die in her presence. Augustus by surprise took the tower, and Cleopatra, to avoid falling into his hands, caused herself to be bitten by an asp. Augustus is now lord of the world.

Death of
Antony and
Cleopatra.

Summary of Roman History to the time of Augustus from the above.

2D PERIOD (*commonwealth*) 250 years from kings expelled, 3500, to the tenth year of the first Punic war, 3750, CONQUEST OF ITALY.

Tarquin and his allies routed and reduced, 3506. The Roman character and policy is completely developed during this rugged period.—Incessant wars with the rebel Latins, Æqui, Volsci, Sabines, Tuscans, and Galli Senones; till at last the Romans reach the Gauls in the north, and the Samnites and Greeks in the south. Usually victorious, undaunted in the midst of disaster; instead of craving peace of an exulting enemy, they appointed a dictator, with absolute power to control their lives and property, and concentrate the energies of the state to a particular point. The detail would present endless repetitions of heroic deeds and patriotic devotion. At last, in spite even of the victories of Pyrrhus, the Samnites and Greeks had to submit, and thus the Romans reach the Greeks and Carthaginians of Sicily. (See below. 1st Punic.)

(*New offices and new magistrates during this period.*) Dictator, a terror to friends and enemies. Tribunes of the people, or popular tribunes to satisfy the plebeians; a singular magistrate, originally having only a veto on the senate and other magistrates. (*Mons Sacer.*) Military tribunes, with consular power, were very different; they took the place of consuls, and were often appointed to satisfy the people, as consuls must be patricians. Frequently appointed between 3560 and 3638, when they were abolished, and the people allowed to choose one plebeian consul. Decemviri, ten men instead of consuls, with power to frame a code of laws; abolished for enormous abuse of power, after the code was finished. (Ap. Claudius, Virginia.)

Civil broils during this period. The Plebeians claim a division of the lands, (agrarian laws); also a share in the public honours and offices; a right to intermarry with patricians; and a right to vote by tribes instead of centuries, which made a poor man's vote equal to the rich man's vote—with all these ferments at home, the Romans never relaxed in war.

3D PERIOD (*commonwealth*) 250 years from the 1st PUNIC WAR, 10th year, 3750, to the birth of Christ, 4000. CONQUESTS ABROAD, (*out of Italy,*) with a frightful interval of INTERNAL CONVULSIONS. In the 1st Punic war, (1st war between Rome and Carthage), the Romans triumph, and get Sicily and the dominion of the sea, (3740—3764); 22 years of peace succeed; then we have the 2d Punic, the most famous Punic war, (Hannibal's), from 3786 to 3803, 17 years. Carthage (Hannibal) was victorious several years, till about 3800, when the tide of fortune turned in favour of the Romans, and rolled on resistless 58 years over the west, (Spain,) south, (Africa,) and east, (Greece and Asia.) Lords of Spain and Africa in 3803, the Romans humbled Macedon, 3808; Asia, Antiochus the Great, (see Greece and Asia,) in 3813; at the same time

Foreign Conquest.
Punic War.
A. M. 3740.
B. C. 264, begun.

entangling Greece and Egypt, and the petty powers of Asia in a deceitful alliance; *conquered* Macedon, 336; destroyed Corinth and Carthage, 358; making Africa and Greece (Achæan League) Roman provinces. Where the Roman arms did not penetrate, the terror of the Roman name awed an obsequious world. Thus in the space of 58 years (3800—3858) Rome swelled into *Romania* or Universal Rome. Asia was tributary, and Egypt under Roman guardianship. All the rest were Roman provinces. Then succeed internal convulsions.

Period of internal convulsions from 3858 till foreign conquests are resumed, and Asia subdued by Pompey, 3939, (81 years). Numantia, in Spain, rebels, 3864. (See Spain.) The popular leaders, *Tiberius Gracchus*, (3871,) and *Caius Gracchus*, (3883,) both killed in the tumults which they excited in the city. *The horrid Jugurtha*, dependent king of Numidia, braved and baffled the Roman armies 5 years, (3893—3903.) At last, Marius and Sylla dragged this monster in chains to Rome, where he was left to starve 9 days in a dungeon. For 8 years the German savages, *Teutones and Cimbri*, (3895—3903,) ravaged Gaul in Italy till they were routed and slaughtered by Marius, 3903. *Social war*, (war of Rome with her Italian allies, called *Socii*,) 3913. After a waste of 300,000 lives, the Italian allies obtained the right of citizenship, (voting and holding offices at Rome.) Next *Mithridates* broke out of Pontus, overran Asia Minor and Greece, and caused to be killed 80,000 Roman citizens that were prowling about Asia Minor, (a horrid execution!) The bloody victories of Sylla in Greece, pressed Mithridates back into Pontus. But the atrocious struggle of *Marius* and *Sylla* for the command in this war, made Rome itself a scene of slaughter and carnage. Twice in his turn, each party prevailed, and four times the streets of Rome were deluged with Roman blood: *Marius*, the second time, while Sylla was in Greece; and *Sylla*, the second time, when he returned from Greece. (Young Pompey, Cæsar, Cicero, and Cato, begin to appear.) *Sertorius* of the Marian faction, dismembers Spain, (see Spain.) *Pompey* has to subdue a rebellion in Africa, *Sertorius* in Spain, the *slaves and gladiators* in Italy, (*servile war*), the *pirates* that covered the Mediterranean, and finally *Mithridates*, who had broken loose again in Asia Minor.

Foreign conquests resumed with intervals of civil wars. After conquering Mithridates, Pompey subjected Asia to the Eupirates, 3939. (Asia had long been tributary.) Four years Rome was agitated by the flagitious quarrels and intrigues of three profligate men, Cæsar, Pompey, and Crassus, who finding all Rome (except Cato and Cicero) enlisted in favour of one or the other, united their interests, formed the first triumvirate, (*three men united*), and took the charge of the world into their own hands, 3944. Pompey had already won his laurels, and therefore reposed at home. Crassus went to gather the spoils and riches of the East, and met in Parthia a most deplorable fate. Cæsar took the two Gauls for his share, and immortalized his name in eight splendid campaigns. (See Gaul.) After that, the world was

Internal Con-
vulsions.

A. M. 3864.
64 Numantia
71 Gracchus.
83 Gracchus.
93 Numidia.

A. M. 3900.

3 Teutones.

13 Social War.

23 Sylla Dictator.

33 Mithridatic War.

33 War.

33 War.

33 War.

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not large enough to contain two such illustrious chiefs; Pompey arrayed the forces of the East, and Cæsar those of the West, and Pompey being defeated at Pharsalia, in Thessaly, and killed in Egypt, Cæsar had only to conquer Pompey's sons in Spain, and Cato in Africa, to be undisputed sovereign and dictator. His glory and triumph soon terminated in his tragic death, leaving the world to be disputed, first between Octavius Cæsar and Mark Antony, and (after they united with Lepidus in the 2d triumvirate) between them and Cæsar's murderers, (Brutus and Cassius.) The latter arrayed the forces of the East against Octavius and Antony, and were conquered at Philippi, 3962. Octavius and Antony, after dividing the world between them ten years, disputed the possession of it at Actium, when Octavius of the West defeated Antony of the East, and remained sole master of the Roman world, 3973.

During his long and prosperous reign, he disguised the most perfect despotism under the ancient forms of the commonwealth. And thus, 3973, we arrive at *imperial Rome*, (*that is, Rome governed by emperors.*) The pacific plans of Augustus (Octavius) embraced the judicious policy of diffusing the Roman language and institutions over the whole Roman world. Latin was the state language of the whole empire; and while the Greek was the popular language of the East, and the language of science, the Latin became common in Africa, Spain, Gaul, and finally in Britain, which was not added to the Roman empire till after the death of Augustus.

Syria after the death of Alexander.

Syria, or Syro Media, under the Seleucidæ, was not merely Syria Proper, but comprised a vast extent of country, from the Bosphorus to the Indus, including a great part of the empire of Persia in Asia.

KINGS OF SYRIA.

SELEUCUS I. Nicator.

SELEUCUS II. Callinicus.

ANTIOCHUS I. Soter.

SELEUCUS III. Ceraunus.

ANTIOCHUS II. Theos.

ANTIOCHUS III. the Great.*

Ipsus.
A. M. 3703.
B.C. 301.

Contest with
Lysimachus.
A.M. 3723.
B.C. 281.

Seleucus, one of the four conquerors of Antigonus, at Ipsus, received Asia as his share of the spoils, and established his capital at *Antioch*, which he built, besides many other cities. He wrested *Thrace* and *Macedon* from Lysimachus, but was soon after assassinated by *Ptolemy Ceraunus*, whom he had protected. He was distinguished for justice, clemency, and love of learning; and surnamed Nicator, from his success

* From Seleucus Nicator to Antiochus the Great, Antiochus, Antiochus; Seleucus, Seleucus.

These are all the Greek kings of Syria that are important, the remainder may be found in the Appendix.

in war. The great library of the Athenians was restored to them by this prince.

Syria, under Seleucus Nicator and his descendants, as far as Antiochus the Great, was independent. These two were the first and last great, the only great princes of the Seleucidæ.

Ant. Theos.
A.M. 3744.
B.C. 269

Antiochus Theos saw the extremes of his empire falling off and rebelling. Parthia, Bactria, India, and Asia Minor resisted his authority.

Ant. the Great.
A.M. 3782.
B.C. 222.

Antiochus the Great thought he had revived the lustre of his house and extent of his empire, but he was the last independent and first vassal king of Syria. He invaded the revolted provinces; and in the attempt to subdue Asia Minor became involved in war with Rome. He was humbled by Scipio Asiaticus, in the battle of Magnesia, and treated with extreme severity. The remaining Seleucidæ were subject to the Romans.

Tributary to
Rome.
A. M. 3813.
B. C. 191.

Seleucus Philopater and Antiochus Epiphanes quarrelled, and their families reigned by turns. Epiphanes invaded Egypt, and ignominiously withdrew on the remonstrance of a Roman ambassador. He took Jerusalem; and, by his excessive cruelties, drove the Jews to assert their rights, and ultimately, under the Maccabees, to free their country from the Syrians.

Jerusalem
taken.
A.M. 3834.
B. C. 170.

The remaining history of Syria is a succession of murders and usurpations, until the people, disgusted by the manners and dissensions of their monarchs, placed themselves under the sway of Tigranes, king of Armenia; and in the succeeding reign Syria was reduced by Pompey to a Roman province.

Tigranes.
A. M. 3921.
B. C. 83.
Pompey.
A. M. 3939.
B. C. 65.

History of Egypt, from its conquest by Cambyzes, to its final subjugation by Augustus.

Alexander
conquered
Egypt.
A. M. 3673.
B. C. 331.

Egypt was conquered by Alexander in 3673. Upon the division of the empire, after the death of Alexander, began the splendid age of the Ptolemies.

Egypt was filled with Greeks and Hebrews. Alexandria became the seat of schools and learning: the museum was established, where all who chose to devote themselves to any department of learning could have apartments, and live on royal bounty.

KINGS OF EGYPT.

The dynasty of the Ptolemies lasted from the battle of Ipsus, 3703, to the battle of Actium, 3973.

KINGS OF EGYPT.

PTOLEMY LAGUS.*	PTOLEMY ALEXANDER.
PTOLEMY PHILADELPHUS.	CLEOPATRA.
PTOLEMY EVERGETIS	PTOLEMY ALEXANDER II.
PTOLEMY PHILOPATER.	PTOLEMY AULETES.
PTOLEMY EPIPHANES.	BERENICE.
PTOLEMY PHILOMETER.	PTOLEMY and CLEOPATRA.
PTOLEMY PHYSCON.	CLEOPATRA II. conquered 3973.
PTOLEMY LUTHYRUS.	

Lagus. A.M. 3671. B.C. 333. Ptolemy Soter, or Lagus, was an excellent prince. He esteemed the welfare of his subjects the first object of government. A lover himself of the arts and sciences, they rose, under his patronage, to a splendour which rivalled their state in the best days of Greece. He was the founder of the famous Alexandrian Library.

Philadelphus. A.M. 3741. B.C. 263. Ptolemy Philadelphus inherited the talents of his father, though he had considerable blemishes of character. It was by the order of this prince that seventy-two interpreters made the celebrated translation of the Hebrew Scriptures into Greek; called, from their number, the Septuagint.

Evergetis. A.M. 3758. B.C. 246. Ptolemy Evergetis trod in the footsteps of his predecessors, and derived his honourable surname of Beneficent from his successful promotion of the prosperity of his people. In the beginning of his reign, having waged a successful war with Antiochus of Syria, for the recovery of some provinces of his hereditary dominions, and returning with immense spoils through Judea, he offered sacrifice, as Josephus tells us, to the God of Israel, in thanksgiving for his victories.

When we pass Evergetis the Ptolemies degenerate.

Philopater was a cruel prince, and his reign was disgraced by a long and sanguinary persecution of the Jews.

Epiphanes. A.M. 3796. B.C. 208. Epiphanes was the first Egyptian tributary to the Romans. He was compelled to seek their protection by the threats of Philip and Antiochus the Great. A king may be at the same time a master and a slave. From the reign of Epiphanes Egypt was completely subordinate to the Romans, the Egyptian Greek princes being permitted to reign, on condition that they gave no umbrage to Rome.

The history of Auletes, the Piper, is a more striking illustration of the degraded state of the country than any other; he was a sort of puppet danced about by the Romans; they put him on and off the throne at their pleasure.

Auletes. A.M. 3935. B.C. 69. Egypt would not have so long delayed its entire subjection to Rome, if it had not been for the internal relations of that empire, and still more

209 Years. * From Ptolemy Lagus 3,700, to Ptolemy Luthyrus, 3,900, are 200 years. The initials will help us to remember the names. From 1st Ptolemy L. to 2d Ptolemy L. there are 6 Ptolemies; viz. Philadelphus and Evergetes, Philopater and Epiphanes, Philometer and Physcon, then Lathyrus. After that there are 3 A's; viz. Alexander, Alexander, Auletes: and, finally, there is the last Greek sovereign of Egypt, Cleopatra.

the charms of Cleopatra. She, by her connexion with Cæsar and Antony, retained her kingdom and even enlarged it.

The history of Egypt now became intimately connected with that of Rome. As long as Cæsar lived Cleopatra had his protection. After Cæsar's death she embraced the party of the triumvirs; and prevailed on them, on the death of her brother, to acknowledge as king her son Ptolemæus Cæsario. But the deep passion which Antony conceived for her chained her to his fate.

After the unsuccessful battle of Actium, 3973, Antony and Cleopatra were pursued by Augustus to Egypt; and during the reign of Alexander they both killed themselves, the one with the sword, the other by the sting of an asp.

Ancient Spain, exhibiting its various Names and Divisions, with an account of its Inhabitants, Colonies, Subjugation, &c.

COUNTRY & NAMES.

Spain (English.)
Not including
Lusitania, now
Portugal

Hesperia (Roman.) Denoting a country west of Rome.

SPAIN is the English translation of the Latin Hispania; but Hispania included the ancient Lusitania, answering nearly to the modern Portugal.

HESPERIA was also applied to the same country, a name expressive of its western position in relation to Rome.

Hispania (Latin.)
(Including Lusitania.)

HISPANIA is the Roman or Latin name, which they borrowed from the Carthaginians, from whom they took this country about 3800, A.M.

Iberia (Greek.)
First applied only
to the Mediterranean coast.

IBERIA was the Greek name, derived from the river Iberus (Ebro.) The Greeks at first applied this name only to the country along the Mediterranean coast from Gades (Cadiz) to the Rhone in Gaul; while they termed the Atlantic coast Tartesses, and the interior with Gaul, under the general name Celtica. But their intercourse with the Romans after Spain became a Roman province, (A.M. 3800,) taught them to apply their name to the whole country.

PEOPLE.

Spaniards (English.)

Hispani (Latin.)
A general name for the Celtiberi, Lusitani, Cantabri, Astures and other particular nations inhabiting Spain.

Iberi (Greek.)
The Greeks at first applied this name only to the people along the Mediterranean coast.

Spain was inhabited by several distinct people, generally mixed races, whose origin was very obscure. The Latin Hispani (masculine plural of Hispanus) was a general term for all these people.

CELTIBERI, (Celts and Iberians mixed together.) This people occupied an indefinite extent along the Mediterranean, and an ample space in the interior, particularly contiguous to the river Iberus (Ebro.) They consisted of a mixture of Native Iberi, and Celts or Gauls. They made a long resistance both to Carthage and Rome. (See Numantia, Sertorius, &c., below.)

Cántabri.
Astures.
Calláici.

CÁNTABRI (in the northwest.) These were a warlike and ferocious people, occupying the northwest of Spain on the Bay of Biscay, (Sinus Cantábricus.) They made a long and obstinate resistance to Rome, and were not finally subdued till the time of Augustus. The ASTURES and CALLÁICI were contiguous to the Cántabri on the west. They long resisted Rome.

LUSITANI (Portuguese.) These inhabited nearly the limits of modern Portugal. They long withstood the Roman armies, and their frequent rebellions occupied the armies of Dolabella, Scipio, Julius Cæsar, &c. (See Numantia, Sertorius, &c., below.)

DIVISIONS.
Tarracensis, or
Citerior.
Murcia, Valencia,
Catalonia, Arra-
gon, Navarre,
Castile.
Biscay, Leon.
Austurias.
Gallicia.

TARRACONENSIS, or CITERIOR, (Hither Spain.) This was one of the two grand divisions of Spain, including the north, east, and interior; (modern Murcia, Valencia, &c.)

ULTERIOR.

ULTERIOR (Farther Spain.) This was the second grand division, including the south and west, viz. Bætica and Lusitania.

Bætica (South.)
(Grenada, Andalusia.)

BÆTICA, the most fertile part of Spain, on the river Bætis, (Guadelquiver,) from which it derives its name.

Lusitania
(West.) (Portugal.)

LUSITANIA, finally was made a separate province, when Bætica received the same distinction.

Tartessus.

The application of this name (Tartessus) is very difficult: it is generally supposed to apply to a city or district about the mouth of the Bætis (Guadelquiver.)

Tarshish.—Balearic Isles.—Ivica, Majorca, Minorca

Some suppose that Tarshish, in the Scriptures, sometimes denotes the same place (Tartessus;) but certainly not always.

COLONIES &
CONQUESTS.
Gades, (Cadiz,) (Phenician.) Saguntum, (Grecian.) New Carthage, (Carthaginian.)

Spain was early visited for purposes of commerce, by Tyrians, (Phenicians,) Carthaginians, Grecians, &c., who established colonies, and planted cities on its coasts and islands, (Gades, &c.)

Conquests of
Carthage in
Spain.

Before A.M. 3500, the enterprising Carthaginians had subdued a considerable extent of the sea coast of Spain in the southeast, as well as the Balearic islands. After the end of the first Punic war, (3740—3764,) the Carthaginians, having lost the command of the sea and their rich possessions in Sicily, pushed their conquests in Spain, (under Hámiclar, A'sdrubal, and Hannibal,) to the river Iberus (Ebro.) The jealous Romans now interposed, took the Greek city of Saguntum, and the whole coast thence to Gaul, under their protection, and made Carthage stipulate to carry their arms no farther north. The taking of Saguntum by Hannibal, and his celebrated march through Gaul into Italy, was the cause and commencement of the second Punic war, which resulted in transferring Spain from Carthage to Rome, and reduced Car-

First Punic.
Loss of Sicily &
the sea.

Further conquests in Spain.

Romans interfere in the affairs of Spain.

Hannibal takes Saguntum, and marches into Italy.

Second Punic.

Romans conquer Spain, and humble Carthage, after Hannibal had harassed them in Italy 15 years.

Romans send armies to fight Carthage in Spain, & young Scipio avenges his father's death, conquers Spain, and passes into Africa, where he acquires the name of Africanus (the elder.) By conquering Hannibal Rome becomes an empire, and soon after becomes powerful in Greece, Egypt, & Asia.

Carthage humbled 3803—destroyed 358. Third Punic.

Romans have to subdue many nations, and often reconquer Spain after they get it from Carthage.

Numantia. — Rebelled from 3864 to 3878. Viriathus was at first their general and leader.

Sertorius. — General revolt in Hispania from 3923 to 3931. All the Roman armies defeated in the Pompey arrived.

Spain, after Augustus, an obedient province, (rich in mines of gold, silver, &c.)

thage from the condition of a great empire to that of an humble city, at the mercy of the conqueror.

Notwithstanding the victories of Trebia, Thrasymène, Cannæ, &c., and the victorious career of Hannibal in Italy for fifteen years, the Romans found armies to send into Spain, which, after some disasters, the young Scipio subdued; signally avenging the slaughter of his father, uncle, and two Roman armies. With great difficulty, he then obtained leave of the Roman senate to pass over to Africa; and there Hannibal, who was recalled from Italy to defend Carthage, was defeated in the fatal field of Zama, A.M. 3803. This (as observed above) at once raised Rome to the rank of an empire, while Carthage only existed to tremble and obey 55 years longer, and was then destroyed, A.M. 3858, in the third Punic war, by Scipio Africanus the younger.

After Spain was transferred to Rome, it cost the Romans many hard efforts to subdue the interior and distant nations (Celtiberi, &c.) who long resisted, and often rebelled.

3864. Numantia, a city in the interior, assisted by the Celtiberi and Lusitani, baffled the Roman arms fourteen years. The celebrated Viriathus was leader of the Spanish confederacy, till he was treacherously killed.

Eight years, from 3923 to 3931, Spain rebelled again, and resisted Rome under Sertorius, a Roman general of the Marian faction, who fled from the dictator Sylla. Many Roman armies were defeated in the contest, till Pompey finished the war, 3931.

Spain (rich in mines and tributes) continued, from the time of Augustus, generally an obedient province till about A.D. 500, that is, about 700 years from the time it was taken from Carthage, (B.C. 204.)

Ancient Gaul, exhibiting its various Names and Divisions, with an account of its Inhabitants, Colonies, Subjugation, &c.

France.
(Franks, French.)
Gaul.
(English from the Latin Gallia.)

Gallia.
(Galli or Gauls.)

Gael. (Celts.)

Modern FRANCE, stands nearly for ancient Gaul.

GAUL, including France, Belgia, Helvetia, &c.

GALLIA is the Roman name of Gaul, from Gael of the natives.

GAEL was the native name of the Celts or Aborigines of Gaul.

Celtica
(Celta, Celts)
Galatia.
(Galarians.)

These terms strictly apply to the Celts, or the country they occupied. The Greeks sometimes applied them to all Gaul.

Gallia,
(Transalpina.)
Gaul beyond the
Alps to the Ro-
mans. Ulterior or
Farther Gaul.—
Original and Pro-
per. It embraced
modern France,
Belgium, the
greater part of
Savoy and Helve-
tia, and Germany
west of the Rhine.

In the common acceptance of the term GALLIA, its application is the same without the epithet Transalpina, as with it. But with the epithet it implies another or second Gaul, and means *distinctly original* Gaul, Gaul *Proper*, in opposition to *Cisalpine*, or Italian Gaul. Gallia embraced the whole extent of country between the Alps, Rhine, (in its entire course,) North Sea, Channel, Bay of Biscay, Pyrenees, and Mediterranean.

Gaulish Settle-
ments in Italy,
&c.

Besides the proper and original Gaul, Gallias or Gauls were multiplied by provincial divisions, and by new settlements beyond the original limits; the two Gauls or the four Gauls being common expressions.

Gallia (Cisalpi-
na) Gaul this
side the Alps, Ci-
terior or Hither
Gaul. Second or
Italian Gaul, from
the Alps to the
Rubicon, includ-
ing Liguria,
which was not
occupied by
Gauls.

About 3400 A.M., (B.C. 600,) in the time of the elder Tarquin, a whole nation of Gauls or Celts passed from original Gaul into Italy, and encroaching upon the Tuscans, who were then spread far north, settled in the country between the Alps and the river Rubicon; and thus formed a second or Italian Gaul, distinguished from the original Gaul by the epithet Cisalpine, which means *this side of the Alps* in relation to the Romans.

Senna Gallia.
A second Italian
Gaul, settled by
Galli Senones
from the Seine in
Gaul; who burn-
ed Rome, under
the first Biennus.

Two hundred years later, 3600, (B.C. 400,) another Gaulish swarm poured into Italy, and passing through Cisalpine Gaul, settled along the Umbrian coast south of of the Rubicon, to a place called from them Sena Gallia, (now Senigaglia,) by which name we may designate also the whole settlement. It was this savage horde that invaded Tuscany and burned Rome, 3614, and never ceased to invade or rebel till nearly exterminated, 3721.

Galatia.—Asiatic
Gaul, or Gaul in
Asia Minor Gal-
atia being a name
applied by the
Greeks to ancient
Gaul.

About 3725, another prodigious swarm of Gauls, under a second Brennus, invaded Macedon and Greece, which, as well as Asia Minor, they long scourged with war and desolation, aggravating the calamities of Alexander's successors, till they finally settled in the central part of Asia Minor, and formed a fourth Gaul, under the

Greek name Galatia.

Provincial Gauls.
Gallia, (Provincia
or Provincia
Romana,) first
Roman province
in Gaul in the
south on the sea
and Alps; called
also Narbonensis.

This division of TRANSALPINE GAUL is also called Provincia Romana, (the Roman Province,) it being the first Roman province in Gaul, and held a considerable time before Julius Cæsar conquered the rest. It lay along the Alps and Mediterranean, comprising modern Provence, Dauphiny, Savoy, and Languedoc.

Gallia (Aquitani-
ca.) Aquitania.
the southwest of
Gaul.

AQUITANIA embraced at first only the country actually inhabited by Aquitani between the Garonne and the Pyrenees; but Augustus enlarged it to the Loire.

Gallia (Celtica
Proper.) The N.
W., central, and
S.E. of Gaul, in-

GALLIA CELTICA OR PROPER at first embraced a great part of the country inhabited by the Celts, from the Garonne, to the Seine, Marne, Upper Rhine, Alps, &c.

habited by Celts or Aborigines; called also Lugdunensis. Its extremes were Brittany and Helvetia. But Augustus greatly reduced its extent by additions to Aquitania and Belgica.

Gallia (Belgica.) **GALLIA BELGICA**, as a province, contained more than Belgia Proper, that is, more than was actually occupied by Belgæ or Belgians. Julius Cæsar confines it within the Seine, Marne, Vosges, (mountains,) Rhine, and Sea. Augustus took from Celtica, Helvetia and the country of the Sequani, (now Franche-Compte,) and added them to Belgica.

Gallia (Germanica.) **GERMANIA** being settled by Germans, was separated by Augustus under the name of Germania, (Germany;) which was distinguished from the proper Germany east of the Rhine by the epithet Cisrhena, (this side of the Rhine—the west side.) This Germany west of the Rhine might be termed Gallia Germanica. or Belgia Germanica. It was distinguished by Augustus into Germania Prima (first) and Secunda (second.)

GAUL, GALLIA, FRANCE, &c. In a loose and familiar sense, these several names are concurrent in their application; but their strict and critical application is not only very different, but often difficult to ascertain; being all of them loosely and variously applied by different authors, and even by the same author in different places.

Application of the term Gallia. There is an original sense of the word Gallia as derived from Gael, which would restrain its application to the proper country of Gaels or Celts, the aborigines of Gaul. But a principle of convenience extended its application to Aquitania and Belgia, which were not inhabited by Galli proper, or Celts, strictly so called. The final and settled application of this word was, to certain well defined natural limits, including Celts, Belgians, and Aquitanians.

Application of the term Celtæ, Celts. The word Celtæ, Celts, &c., has a much stricter application to the *race* than the word Galli has; by Celts we mean the aborigines of Gaul, Spain, Britain, &c., a people said to have been entirely distinct and peculiar in their origin, language, and customs. *All* Gauls then were not Celts; nor were *all* Celts Gauls. The Celts of Spain and Britain were not Gauls, nor were the Gauls of Belgia and Aquitania Celts. We apply the word Celts to a primitive aboriginal race, whose *Gaelic* descendants have been reduced by national extermination to a few Welsh, Irish, and Highland Scotch.

Subdivisions of Gaul. The divisions of Gauls by Julius Cæsar into Celts, Aquitanians, and Belgians, and the corresponding division of the country into the provinces of Celtica, Aquitania, and Belgica, was simple and convenient. But the changes made in the limits of these divisions by Augustus, as well as other considerations, have perplexed the geography of Gaul, by giving countenance and currency to applications of the same terms, seemingly inconsistent and contradictory.

These subdivisions confused. To express the distinction between these ancient and obscure races in confident and unqualified terms, is abus-

ing all readers and learners. That there were three distinct races, viz. Belgians, Celts, and Aquitanians, in Gaul, we cannot question. But there must have been many savage tribes not precisely assignable to either of these divisions. If many tribes could be designated as Celts or Belgians, there must have been also many that could not be clearly and distinctly either Celts or Belgians. This sufficiently accounts for the vague and unsatisfactory explanations we get from our books.

Causes of this
confusion.

The detail of early history develops the causes of our perplexities on this subject. The clans of each great division were distinguished among themselves by striking peculiarities; and roving savages were continually changing their residence, blending, exterminating, &c. The Celts mixed with Belgians and Aquitanians, and Gauls mixed with Germans and Spaniards. The unsettled hordes of Gaul and Germany were always in commotion; rushing in resistless bodies from one country into the other, blending, exterminating, &c. Germans were found in Gaul, and Gauls were found in Germany, Italy, Asia Minor, &c.

Belgians of Ger-
man extraction.

Julius Cæsar tells us that the Belgic Gauls were for the most part originally Germans, and that of all the Gaulic nations only these *German Gauls* could resist the fury of their brethren, the Teutones and Cimbri. The Belgic Gauls were doubtless successive hordes of German emigrants. The earliest emigrants were crowded by later ones towards the Seine and North Sea; and in the time of Cæsar, the nearer you approached the Rhine, the more obvious was the German extraction of the people. This sufficiently explains why the number, extent, and distinctive character of the Belgians are so illy defined. Cæsar allows but a few real Belgians, and no author furnishes a distinct characteristic for the Belgic race. It may be observed, that from the time of Cæsar to our own time, no geographical term has been more vague and fluctuating than that of Belgium or Belgia.

No precise bound-
aries can be
fixed.

Gauls, Celts, &c.

The invasion of Gaul and Italy by the savage hosts of Germany, called Teutones and Cimbri, 3895, is familiar to most readers. Though they were nearly destroyed by Marius, 3903, yet in their career of eight years, they must have caused great changes in the population of the countries through which they passed. In Cæsar's first campaign in Gaul, he had to encounter the whole nation of Helvetia, who had left their inhospitable country to seek a more favourable settlement in the lands of the Ædui, between the Soane and the Loire. The next formidable foe he met, was the Germans, under their king, Ariovistus, who had crossed the Rhine, and subdued the northeast of Gaul. Other emigrations more ancient and obscure, are mentioned by historians; but probably enough has been said to satisfy every reader that no precise boundaries can be fixed for Gauls, Celts, Belgians, or Germans, in these early ages.

Tacitus' opinion
respecting the ori-
gin of the Ger-
mans.

Tacitus advances the opinion that the Germans were an indigenous or aboriginal race. He might better have said, that neither he nor any body else knew much about them, only that they had no fixed residences, and were

divided into innumerable clans, devoted to war, rapine, and all savage pursuits.

His account of the origin of their name is sufficiently curious and characteristic to merit attention. He says it was modern or of recent origin. A German people, called Tungrians in his time, and settled along the Meuse in Belgic Gaul, had assumed, when they crossed the Rhine, the frightful name of Gher-men, (war-men,) to spread a panic before them; which frightful name was perpetuated as we find in Cæsar, and being propagated by Gauls and Romans, it *recrossed* the Rhine, and became the general name for the people on the east of that river, as well as for those who had settled on the west of it.

The fate and fortunes of Gaul, after it became a Roman province, were chiefly influenced by the great exposure to barbarous incursions on the German frontier.

The long struggle of the Gauls with Rome exhibited the unequal conflict of brutal ferocity and wild enterprise against disciplined valour and deep-working policy. From the burning of Rome by the Galli Senones, 3614, the Italian Gauls continued the implacable enemies of Rome about 165 years, till those of the north were finally subdued, about 3780, between the first and second Punic wars.

The victories of Hannibal in the north of Italy, 3786, encouraged the Gauls to assist him about fifteen years in Italy; but the triumphs of Scipio Africanus the elder in Spain and Africa, re-established the Roman dominion both over Gauls in the north, and Greeks in the south of Italy. It was a part of Roman policy to secure their conquests by fixing garrisons and planting colonies among the conquered people.

The Romans early maintained a friendly intercourse with the Greeks of Marseilles, whom they protected against their barbarous neighbours. They finally got a firm footing in their new province of Gaul, (Provincia Romana,) by planting colonies and establishing garrisons there, particularly after the famous defeat of the Teutones by Marius at Aquæ Sextiæ, near Marseilles.

Cæsar held the two Gauls about ten years, from 3944 to 3954, and employed eight bloody campaigns in his cruel conquest. The invasion of the Helvetians and Germans, and the intestine division among the Gaulic tribes, soon opened a fine field for his splendid military talents. All these enemies were speedily subdued or annihilated. And when his boundless rapacity and wanton slaughter of enemies and insurgents provoked new enemies and fearful combinations against him, he had the address and genius to baffle and confound the whole, when any other man would have been overwhelmed.

A CHRONOLOGICAL INDEX,

Containing the most important Events, from A. M. 3750 to 4554.

- 3250** Rome built. History of Assyria, Babylon, Media, and Lydia begin to be known about the same period.
- 3264** Ahaz, king of Judah, attacked by Pekah, king of Israel, and Rezen, king of Syria, invites Tiglath-Pileser king of Assyria, and gives him the treasures of the holy temple, for his assistance against his invaders. Tiglath-Pileser carries the Syrians captive, subdues their country, and also carries the four northern and three eastern tribes of Israel captive. Commences the first captivity, leaving only the two tribes of Ephraim and Manasseh half tribe.
- 1st Captivity begun.
3283 First captivity completed by Shalmanezzer, who took Samaria, and subjugated the country now called Samaria.
- 3379** Nabopolassar, a Babylonian, revolts from Saracus, the last king of Nineveh or Assyria. Destroys Nineveh, and makes Babylon the seat of the Babylonish empire.
- Babylonish Empire. Jeremiah.
3398 Nebuchadnezzar, now joint king with his father Nabopolassar, invades Judah—takes *Daniel* the prophet, and commences the second captivity, or that of Judah.
- 2d or Babylonish captivity begins. . . lasts 70 years, till 3468.
3400 Nebuchadnezzar reigns alone, on the death of his father.
- 3406** Ezekiel, with many other Jews, taken to Babylon.
- 2d taking of the 2d captivity. Jeconiah. Zedekiah.
3416 Jerusalem *taken*, the city and temple *destroyed*, and the Jews (that is, the people of Jerusalem) carried captive. This is the completion of the second captivity.
- 2d captivity completed by the 3d and last taking.
3426 About the middle of the siege of Tyre, by Nebuchadnezzar, which lasted 13 years. New city on an island. No spoils found in the old city, the inhabitants having removed, with their effects, to their new city.
- 3436** About this time Nebuchadnezzar returns from his invasion of Egypt, laden with spoils; but Egypt was only spoiled, not subjected to Babylon.

- 3446 Cyrus of *Media* or *Persia*, in conjunction with his uncle Cyaxares, (or, as some say, alone, having dethroned his grandfather Astyagas,) commences his career of conquest, attacking the dominions of the king of Babylon, reducing Armenia, and then marching into Asia Minor.
- 3456 Cyrus conquers Cræsus, king of Lydia, whose dominions comprehended nearly the whole of Asia Minor. The Æolian, Ionian, and Dorian Greeks, having been subjected by Cræsus and his predecessors, now reluctantly yield to Cyrus, and become subject to the king of Persia.
- 3466 Babylonish empire ends. Persian emp. begins. Susa the capital. Babylon taken and the Persian empire founded, just 200 years before Philip conquered Greece.
- 3468 Jews restored to their country by Cyrus, but still held in political subjection to the kings of Persia. 2d Temple begun at Jerusalem, just 200 years before Philip died and Alexander began his reign.
- 3478 Egypt added to the Persian empire. Cyrus dies and Cambyses begins, (actually 3475,) and in 3478 Cambyses invades Egypt, and adds it to the Persian empire.
- 3488 Darius Hystaspes, who began to reign in 3483, reduces Babylon, which had revolted from him, after a siege of twenty months.
- 3492 Thrace added to the Persian empire. Darius, after an invasion of the Scythians, on the coast of the Black Sea, (unfortunate) conquers Thrace on his return.
- 3498 India added to the Persian empire. Darius invades and conquers India; which, in tribute, was the richest province of the Persian empire.
- 3500 Persian invasion, 25 years, until 3025.
- 3505 Ionians subdued. The Greeks had struggled five years in Asia Minor, Thrace, and the islands of the Ægean Sea. The king of Persia then prepared to carry the war into Greece; but his preparations were slow and tedious.
- 3510 Mardonius despatched for Greece with an army; has his army cut off in Thrace, and loses his fleet on the coast.
- 3515 *Battle of Marathon*; *Miltiades*, father of Cimon, chief; *Aristides* and *Themistocles* also present. *Datis* and *Artaphernes*, generals of Darius. 10,000 Athenians defeat 110,000 Persians. Here the Greeks learned to conquer vastly superior armies, in point of number, and to despise the motley, ill-assorted troops of Asia. 1000 Platæans fought with the Athenians, but the Spartans had no share in the battle of Marathon.
- Mara hon. Athens champion of all Greece against all Persia. Poet. Æschylus.

3520 Darius Hystaspes dies. Herodotus, the first profane historian, born. Xerxes subdues a revolt in Egypt; and by that is delayed in making a second expedition into Greece.—Though Herodotus was not born till 3520, yet his history is considered authentic, though extravagant, from 3500; as he could ascertain the particulars of the Grecian and Persian wars, from 3500, from living witnesses older than himself. But his history of the Greeks and other nations, prior to the Persian wars, is full of conceits, fictions, and marvels, though generally founded on fact. It is remarkable that Homer, the first poet, Pythagorus and Thales, the first philosophers, and Herodotus, the first profane historian, should be among the most illustrious in their respective departments; yet their views were fanciful and often fantastic.

3525 The great battles of *Thermopylae*, (Leonidas)—*Artemesium*, *Salamis*, (Themistocles)—*Platea*, no transcendant genius—*Mycale*, Xantippus, (father of Pericles)—Cimon, a valiant youth at Salamis. Greeks victorious.

3525 The Persians cease to invade Greece. Poetry and philosophy first dawned among the Greeks of *Asia Minor*; but after these great battles and events *Athens* attracted the muses, philosophy, and liberal arts. While Xerxes invaded Greece, the Carthaginians, who possessed part of Sicily, being leagued with Xerxes, tried to conquer Syracuse and other Greek cities of Sicily. In this war Gelon overthrew 300,000 of them by surprise. From this time until the first Punic war, 3740, the Carthaginians tried to conquer the Greeks of Sicily.

Athens, which the Persians had burnt, was rebuilt and strengthened with walls. The Spartans remonstrate, but Themistocles outwitted them; and the stone walls, the ports and fleets of Athens confirmed its power and pre-eminence.

3530 In the battles of 3525, the Athenians had, from policy, allowed to the Spartans the nominal command, though the Athenian commander had, at *Artemisia*, *Salamis*, *Platea*, and *Mycale*, the deserved credit of the brilliant success. After this period, 3530, the haughtiness of the Spartan commanders became offensive to the allies, and the command passed to Cimon the Athenian; who, by his genius and disposition, attached all the allies to him, and brought them into alliance with Athens. This great champion delivered from the yoke of Persia the Greeks of Thrace and *Asia Minor*, and of the islands, and Athens rose to empire. Having at her disposal the resources of Greece, and provoking, by her ascendancy, the jealousy of Sparta, Cimon enriched himself and his dear Athens with the spoils of Persia, Pericles cherished the democracy and Cimon the aristocracy of Athens. Pericles always tried to involve Athens and Sparta—Cimon always tried to allay the jealousy between the two states.

Thermopylae
Artemisia
Salamis Platea
Mycale.

Grecian retaliation, until 3555.

Cimon's career of 30 years.

- 3535 *Pericles* supreme at Athens for 40 years. *Aristides* dies. *Themistocles* banished, (3533.) Double victory of *Cimon* over the Persian fleet and army at the *Eurymedon*, in *Pamphylia*; that is victory by sea and land the same day. During these 40 years *Pericles* and *Cimon* were the master spirits; *Phidias* the genius. Walls and temples rose, to fortify and adorn Athens. The trophies of *Cimon*, and the Persian spoils, contribute to distinguish, enrich, and embellish Athens. *Pericles* was more conspicuous at *home*; *Cimon* *abroad*. *Cimon* the *aristocrat* distinguished from *Pericles* the *democrat*.
- 3539 Earthquake at *Sparta*. *Helots* and *Messenians* revolt. *Messenian* war. *Messenians* subdued after ten years. Constant jealousies between Athens and *Sparta* from this time.
- 3544 Transient revolt of *Egypt* under *Inarus*, assisted by Athens. The Persian yoke was always heavy upon the *Egyptians*. The *Egyptians* frequently revolted, and were always reduced with great difficulty.
- 3548 *Egyptians* reduced to obedience.
- 3550 *Cimon* banished, by the influence of his rival *Pericles*, and afterwards recalled by the same influence; he was accused of being too favourable to *Sparta*.
- 3555 *Cimon's* last victory over the *Persians*. He dies. The *Grecians* and *Persians* make peace.
- 3558 Truce between *Sparta* and Athens for 30 years; soon broken.
- 3559 *Herodotus* reads his history at his adopted city, Athens. He was a native of *Hallicarnassus* in *Caria*. He afterwards read it at *Olympia*.
- 3565 A war between *Corinth* and her colony, *Corcyra*. The assistance yielded by Athens to *Corcyra* in this war is the more immediate cause of the *Peloponnesian* war. *Thucydides*, second historian.
- 3570 *Socrates* flourishes.
- 3573 *Peloponnesian* war. Athens and *Sparta* leading parties, but nearly all Greece engaged. *Darius Nothus* assists the *Spartans* in the last year of the war.
- 3575 *Pericles* dies the second year of the *Peloponnesian* war.
- 3583 Peace between Athens and *Sparta* stipulated for 50 years; but so poorly observed, that the *Peloponnesian* war is considered as continuing until 3600.
- 3588 Disastrous expedition of Athens to attack *Syracuse*, which was assisted by its Doric mother *Corinth*, and afterwards by *Sparta*. In this war *Alcibiades* was the instigator; *Nicias*

and the intrepid Demosthenes the victims. Tremendous vicissitudes during the whole expedition, and dreadful catastrophe.

- 3590 Egypt revolts from Persia. The Ægean Sea becomes the scene of contest between Athens and Sparta. The generals of Darius Nothus assist Sparta.
- 3595 Alcibiades recalled.
- 3599 Battle of Ægos-Potamos.
- 3600 Peloponnesian war ends by the taking of Athens by the Spartans. Darius Nothus dies. Plato, Xenophon, flourish.
- 3600 The Spartans, on taking Athens, set up thirty tyrants, who scourge the city with horrid cruelties.
- 3601 *Thrasybulus* expels the tyrants, and delivers Athens. He had found refuge from the tyrants at Thebes.
- 3602 *Cyrus* the younger, governor of Asia Minor, prepares to attack and dethrone his brother Artaxerxes, king of Persia.
- 3603 Defeat and death of *Cyrus* at *Canaxa*. Retreat of 10,000 Greeks, conducted and narrated by Xenophon. Death of Socrates.
- 3604 Sparta, now the predominant power of Greece, pursues a haughty and oppressive course with the Greeks, and makes war on Tissaphernes and Pharnabazus, Persian governors of Asia Minor.
- 3607 Agesilaus elected king of Sparta, proves a great king, acts a conspicuous part in Asia Minor, threatening the Persian empire.
- 3610 *Corinthian league*, formed by the oppressed states of Greece, and furnished with Persian gold, to check the daring enterprises of Sparta. Conon, with his own ten ships, and a fleet furnished by the king of Persia, defeats the Spartans, restores to Athens the dominion of the sea, and returns to Athens after eleven years' absence; and with Spartan spoil repairs the wanton waste and ruin which the Spartans, in 3600, had committed on the walls, towers, and citadel. By these various movements and events Agesilaus is recalled to defend Sparta. After the victory of Conon, Athens gradually recovers splendour, power, and many of its rich provinces in Thrace and the Ægean Sea.
- 3617 Antalcidas. The Spartans, finding it impossible to domineer over the states of Greece as far as they wished, made a mean peace with Persia, Antalcidas being the Spartan negociator. —This treaty required Thebes, Corinth, Argos, and even Athens, to abandon all their dependent cities. The Spartans

resolved, however, to retain all their rights and dependants, having meanly purchased the favour of that king of Persia whose dominions they had lately invaded.

3623 Thebes perfidiously taken by a Spartan army, which entered the city under the guise of friendship. The same cruelties acted as at Athens.

3627 *Thebes* delivered by *Pelopidas* and *Epaminondas*. The former returned in disguise from Athens as Thrasybulus did from Thebes. From this time there is one continued struggle between Thebes and Sparta, until 3641, when Thebes was triumphant, and Sparta humbled at Mantinea.

3633 Battle of Leuctra in Bœotia—Pelopidas and Epaminondas gloriously triumph.

3634 Philip of Macedon carried a hostage to Thebes ten years before he was made king.

3641 Battle of Mantinea in Arcadia. Epaminondas again humbles Sparta, but dies full of glory. Thebes and Athens are now the predominant powers, until Philip appears.

3644 Philip, the youngest of several brothers, had been carried as a hostage to Thebes by Pelopidas, who arbitrated a dispute between the brothers. Philip, on hearing of the death of his last brother, privately escaped from Thebes, and ascended a throne beset by competitors, to rule a small, inland, distressed and ravaged country. He was instructed by the best masters of the wisest age of Greece; cool, politic, shrewd, wily, ambitious and enterprizing; a profound politician, accomplished scholar, and consummate dissembler; companionable, affable, facetious. What was wanting was an honest heart.

3646 War of Athens with its allies.

3650 Sacred war.

3651 Philip takes Methone.

3652

Demosthenes flourishes. Philip prevented from taking Thermopylæ.

3656 Philip takes Olynthus.

3657 Philip seizes Thermopylæ, punishes the Phocians, and becomes in place of them a member of the Amphyctionic Council.

3665 The Athenian Phocion compels Philip to raise the siege of Byzantium and Perinthus.

3666 *Battle of Chæronea*. Philip, having finished another sacred war, had alarmed and united Thebes and Athens by taking Elatea, but defeated both at Chæronea.

- 3667 Philip declared at Corinth generalissimo of all Greece against Persia.
- 3668 Philip assassinated—Alexander succeeds.
- 3670 Alexander with 30,000 Greeks invades the Persian empire, defeats Darius at the river Grancius, reduces the cities that resist him, and subjects Asia Minor.
- 3671 Alexander gains the battle and the pass of Issus, and enters Syria; besieges Tyre seven months and takes it; Jerusalem is delivered to him by Jaddus the high priest.
- 3672 Gaza surrenders after a siege of three months, and Egypt, so long disaffected to the Persians, submits without resistance. Alexandria founded.
- 3673 *Battle of Arbela.* Darius defeated the third time. Macedonian empire succeeds the Persian. Alexander takes Babylon, Susa, Persepolis, marches into India, and conquers as far as his troops will follow.
- 3681 Alexander dies, aged 33, at Babylon, while he is endeavouring to reinstate that city in its splendour and make it his capital. Philip Aridaeus and Alexander Ægus sham kings. Empire divided.
- 3682 Lamian war—so called because the revolted Athenians attacked Antipater at Lamia. Antipater prevailed and took Athens. Death of Demosthenes.
- 3683 Body of Alexander carried to Egypt. Antigonus and Antipater league against Eumenes and the regent Perdiccas. Perdiccas killed—Antipater regent in his stead.
- 3685 Antipater dies. Polysphercon is regent in his stead, and is opposed by Lysander, son of Antipater. Phocion condemned. Cassander seizes Athens, and makes Demetrius Phalereus governor.
- 3687 Olympia puts to death Aridaeus and his wife Euridice, and is herself soon after killed by Cassander.
- 3689 Eumenes, governor of Cappadocia, after being pursued from Cappadocia to Syria, and from thence to the Euphrates, long supporting the character of a great general, is at last basely murdered by his troops. From this time Antigonus is constantly encroaching on the rights and territories of the other generals, and provokes them to that final conflict that ended at *Ipsus* in his defeat and death.
- 3691 Antigonus and his strange son Poliorcetes take Tyre after a siege of fifteen months.
- 3692 Zeno founds the sect of the Stoics at Athens.

- 3693** Seleucus takes Babylon and the neighbouring provinces. Ptolemy takes a great number of Jews to Alexandria. Cassander kills Roxanna and her infant son.
- 3695** Polysphercon, after attempting to make use of young Hercules against Cassander, basely murdered him to gain Cassander to his interest.
- 3696** Ophellias, governor of Lybia, revolts against Ptolemy of Egypt.
- 3698** Demetrius Poliorcetes takes Athens, Cyprus, and Salamis. The governors assume the title of kings.
- 3700** Celebrated seige of Rhodes by Demetrius, which fails.
- 3702** Antigonus and Demetrius now lords of Asia by rapine and cruelty, and by threatening the other princes. Cassander, Lysimachus, Ptolemy, and Seleucus league against them.
- 3703** *Battle of Ipsus.* Antigonus killed and his strange son Demetrius Poliorcetes flies with a small army to be the sport of fortune a little longer.
- 3704** Seleucus builds Antioch in Syria. The Athenians reject the fugitive Demetrius Poliorcetes, who still however possesses Cyprus, Tyre, Sidon, some towns in the Peloponessus and elsewhere.
- 3707** Cassander dies. The famous Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, who had been driven out of his kingdom, this year marries Antigona, step-daughter of Ptolemy, who gives him a fleet, with which he returns to Epirus and regains his kingdom.
- 3709** Demetrius, after wandering about, plundering, &c., for several years, returns to Athens, which he retakes, but soon after hears that Ptolemy had taken Cyprus.
- 3710** Demetrius, soon after hearing of the loss of Cyprus, is invited to Macedon by Alexander, son of Cassander, whom he kills and succeeds.
- 3711** Seleucus founds Seleucia near Babylon, which causes the rapid decay of Babylon.
- 3715** Death of the atrocious Agathocles, tyrant of Syracuse, after a bloody reign of twenty-eight years.
- 3717** Pyrrhus on one side, and Lysimachus on the other, invade Macedon, and drive out Demetrius, who was preparing to invade them. Demetrius wanders into Asia, falls into the hands of Seleucus, who confines him on an island till he dies. Lysimachus unites Macedon and Thrace.
- 3718** Lysimachus, after driving out his friend Pyrrhus, rules in Macedon and Thrace, after which there is no distinct kingdom of Thrace.

- 3719** Pergamus becomes a kingdom under Philetaerus, who held the city and large treasures for Lysimachus, which Philetaerus now appropriates to himself.
- 3722** Lysimachus and his son Agathocles marry Arsinoe and Lysandra, daughters of Ptolemy. Their brother, Ptolemy Ceraunus, fled from his brother Philadelphus, but found a poor refuge with his sisters, who were quarrelling.
- 3723** Ptolemy Ceraunus flies from the bloody court of Lysimachus, and persuades Seleucus to make war upon him. Lysimachus was killed, and Thrace and Macedon fell to Seleucus, who was killed by Ceraunus after entering Macedon.
- 3724** Ceraunus, after the atrocious murder of his benefactor Seleucus, kills his sister's children by Lysimachus. Pyrrhus, invited by the Greeks of Tarentum, enters Italy and gains several victories over the Romans.
- 3725** Pyrrhus in Italy. A swarm of Gauls break into Macedon and kill Ceraunus, who is succeeded by Meleager.
- 3726** Pyrrhus abandons his fortune in Italy, and seeks new honours in Sicily.
- 3727** Ptolemy Philadelphus is said to have carried seventy Jews to Egypt to make the Septuagint version of the Old Testament: this is not the received opinion.
- 3728** Antigonus Gonatus, who had succeeded his father in the cities of Greece, this year came to fill the vacant throne, from which his father had been driven ten years before.
- 3729** Antigonus and Antiochus quarrel about Macedon; the dispute is settled by a marriage; and the posterity of old Antigonus, and his son, Demetrius Poliorcetes, fill the throne until 3836. Antiochus receives the name of Soter for defeating the Gauls who invaded Macedon. They settle in Thrace.
- 3730** Pyrrhus flies back to Italy and is defeated by the Romans, then flies to Macedon, and drives out Antigonus till '33.
- 3732** Pyrrhus tries in vain to conquer Sparta.
- 3733** Pyrrhus killed at the siege of Argos by a tile thrown by a mother who saw his sword raised to kill her son. After this the race of Antigonus and Demetrius reign uninterrupted in Macedon, till 3836.
- 3736** Antigonus Gonatus returns to Macedon (33) after the death of Pyrrhus. From this time there is one continued struggle between his descendants on one side, and the states of Greece on the other.

- 3739 Abautidas kills Clinias the governor, and masters Sycion. Magus, governor of Lybia, revolts against Ptolemy.
- 3740 Punic war (actual year)—the first war the Romans carried out of Italy, having been employed 500 years in conquering the different Italian states.
- 3741 Eumenes in Pergamus.
- 3743 Berosus of Babylon, the historian.
- 3746 Magus and Ptolemy reconciled.
- 3749 A war between Antiochus of Syria and Ptolemy.
- 3750 Punic war, (tenth year.) Achæan league:—a league of twelve cities which had existed for some time, but now for the first time becomes important. Parthia, revolting from Antiochus Theos, separated from Syria—afterwards an empire. These wars and the Achæan league began about the same time, and ended the same year, 3858.
- 3752 Aratus, son of Clinias, delivers Sicyon from tyranny, and unites it to the Achæan league.
- 3755 Antiochus and Ptolemy make peace on condition that Antiochus divorce his wife Laodice, and marry Berenice, daughter of Ptolemy.
- 3756 Agis 4th of Sparta, endeavours to restore the severe laws of Lycurgus.
- 3757 Ptolemy Evergetes reigns.
- 3758 The divorced Laodice poisons her husband after he had received her again, and proclaims Callinicus her son. Berenice and her son were assassinated. Ptolemy Evergetes enters Syria, lays it waste, and takes ample revenge.
- 3760 Aratus takes Corinth by a daring enterprise from the king of Macedon, and unites it to the Achæan league, as he had done his native city Sicyon. King Agis fails in his attempts to restore the laws of Lycurgus, and is put to death.
- 3762 Antigonus Gonatus dies. Seleucus Callinicus has a fearful war with his brother Hierax.
- 3764 End of the first *Punic war*, after continuing twenty-four years. The Romans gained Sicily and the dominion of the sea, which Carthage had long possessed.
- 3772 Antigonus Doson reigns in Macedon as guardian to his cousin Philip, afterwards king.
- 3774 Seleucus Callinicus taken prisoner in Parthia which he is attempting to recover.

- 3776 Cleomenes, king of Sparta, gains a great victory over Aratus and the Achaeans.
- 3777 Seleucus dies in Parthia. Ceraunus succeeds. Aratus defeats Aristippus of Argos, and gains Megalopolis to the Achaean league.
- 3779 The Romans humble Teuta, queen of the piratical Illyrians. They send a famous embassy to notify the Grecians of their treaty. The embassy treated with extraordinary marks of honour. Aratus calls Antigonus Doson king of Macedon to aid him against Sparta. This was contemptible policy, since it was the aim of the Achaean league to repel the kings of Macedon.
- 3781 Aratus and Antigonus combined defeat Cleomenes king of Sparta, at Sellasia. Sparta is taken. Cleomenes has to flee to Egypt. Antiochus the Great reigns. His great cotemporaries were Philip, Hannibal, Fabius, Marcellus, and the Scipios; on these depended the destinies of Greece, Rome, and Carthage.
- 3782 The Colossus of Rhodes thrown down by an earthquake.
- 3783 Ptolemy Philopater. The Ætolians figure in Greece, and gain a great victory over the the Achaeans. Philip of Macedon.
- 3784 Antiochus the Great resolves to recover Parthia. He actually recovers Media and Persia which had *lately revolted*. Cleomenes dies in Egypt basely treated.
- 3787 *Battle of Rapha.*
- 3788 Second *Punic war*. Hannibal, Carthaginian general of Spain, crosses the Pyrrhenean mountains into Gaul, and the Alps into Italy, and gains several victories.
- 3790 Philip of Macedon being leagued with Hannibal, the Romans send sufficient forces and money to employ him while Hannibal is at their gates.
- 3792 Syracuse taken by Marcellus the Roman general, after a siege of three years. The Romans were nearly baffled by the machines of Archimedes.
- 3800 Antiochus the Great defeats the Egyptians and takes the Holy Land. Scipio conquers Spain. The Egyptians crave the protection of the Romans against Antiochus the Great and Philip of Macedon. From this the Romans make rapid advances by the power of their arms, and the terror of their name, and by the array of petty states against larger ones.
- 3801 A league between Philip and Antiochus the Great against Egypt, obliges the young king Ptolemy to put himself under

- to put himself under the protection of the Romans, who from that time become arbiters in the affairs of Egypt.
- 3803 Scipio having boldly landed in Africa, Hannibal is recalled and defeated by Scipio at Zama. Carthage *city* stands, the *empire* destroyed, despoiled, and not permitted to repel the attacks of its neighbours.
- 3804 Romans make war on Philip 2d of Macedon (for four years.)
- 3806 Some say that this is the year that Antiochus the Great took Palestine. It seems, however, that it was five or six years earlier. The Achaeans and Ætolians join the Romans against Philip.
- 3807 Nabis, tyrant of Sparta, joins the Romans against Philip.
- 3808 *Battle of Cenocephale*. Philip humbled, and both Macedon and Greece are subjected to Roman dictation. The smaller states of Greece and Asia seem to court the Roman yoke.
- 3813 *Battle of Magnesia*. Antiochus the Great, after traversing Asia into India, with a triumphant march, taking Palestine from Ptolemy, exercising great power in Asia Minor and Greece, is humbled at Magnesia in Asia Minor by Scipio Asiaticus, who pursued him out of Greece, and compelled him to plunder his people and pay tribute to the Romans, who become umpires of the East.
- 3814 Philopoemen makes the Spartans join the Achaean league.
- 3815 The Ætolians, who had joined the Romans against Philip, now assist Antiochus the Great against the Romans, and were this year humbled and severely chastised.
- 3821 Philopoemen dies, often called the last of the Greeks.
- 3830 Antiochus Epiphanes deposes Onias, a high priest of the Jews, and sells the office to Jason.
- 3833 Antiochus Epiphanes makes war on Ptolemy Philopater, and the Romans on Perseus three years.
- 3834 Antiochus Epiphanes makes himself master of all Egypt, takes the young king Ptolemy prisoner, and commits horrid cruelties at Jerusalem on his return.
- 3836 *Battle of Pydna*. Macedon conquered. Perseus carried to Rome by Paulus Æmilius. Pretended freedom, real tribute and slavery. Macedon not declared a Roman province until 3856, twenty years after.
- 3837 1000 principal men of the Achaeans, including the historian Polybius, summoned to Rome. Antiochus Epiphanes goes

- to Jerusalem to enforce his decree against religion. Death of Eleazer. Martyrdom of Maccabaeus.
- 3838 Death of Matthias Maccabaeus. Judas succeeds him and triumphs. The Holy Land becomes independent of Syria.
- 3843 Judas Maccabaeus dies after victories and prodigies of valour, and leaving his country in fact independent, although the struggle continues under his brothers.
- 3852 Andriscus, pretending to be the son of Perseus and king of Macedon, is subdued. The Romans refuse Carthage permission to defend itself against Massanissa. A cruel war ensues because it attempts to defend itself without permission.
- 3854 Third *Punic war*.
- 3858 The destruction of the city of Carthage by the younger Scipio Africanus finishes the Punic wars, after 118 years. The destruction of Corinth prostrates the Achaean league, 108 years after Aratus had united Sycion to it. Spain, Greece, Macedon, and Africa belong to the Romans. The terror of their name is sufficient in Asia and Egypt, where princes are allowed to reign provided they do nothing to offend the Romans. Domestic convulsions suspend the career of conquest until 3900, when Pompey conquers the East.
- 3863 *Numantia*, a rebel city of Spain, resists Rome for a long time. Demetrius Nicator taken prisoner in Parthia.
- 3871 *Tiberius Gracchus*, a popular orator, proposes an Agrarian law, or the division of the lands of Pergamus, just bequeathed to Rome by the last king. Gracchus is killed.
- 3883 *Caius Gracchus* imitates the popular acts of his brother, and like him is killed in a tumult.
- 3890 Syria, already reduced to a small province by dismemberment, is divided into two hostile kingdoms, Antioch and Damascus.
- 3893 *Numidia*. Jugurtha, after supplanting his cousins, after defying the Romans and resisting their best generals for five years, is carried to Rome and starved to death in a prison.
- 3894 Marius and Sylla supplant Metellus in the command against Jugurtha.
- 3893 Teutones and Cimbri threaten for eight years to rush into the fair field and fine climate of Italy, and extinguish the Roman name.
- 3903 *Teutones* and *Cimbri* defeated.
- 3907 Ptolemy Apion bequeaths Cyrene to Rome.

- 3913** *Social war*, (three years,) called also the *Marcian war*. The Italian *Socii* or *Allies*, long since subdued, revolt against Rome, and demand the privilege of voting at Rome. A Roman civil war was between two Romans, or Roman armies. A social war was between the Italian *Socii* or *Allies* and Rome.
- 3915** Mithridates causes 80,000 Romans to be massacred in Asia Minor. The consequence was the *Mithridatic war*. Mithridates makes himself master of Greece and Asia Minor. The Romans had to finish the *Marcian war* by yielding their demands to some of the allies, and thus dividing the confederacy.
- 3916** Old Marius tries to supplant Sylla in the command against Mithridates. Sylla marches his army to Rome, drives Marius out, who, after astonishing exploits and escapes, arrives at the ruins of Carthage.
- 3917** Sylla meets Archelaus, son of Mithridates, in Greece, and recovers Athens from him after a destructive siege.
Civil war.
- 3618** Sylla gains the victories of Cheronæa and Orchomenos over Archelaus. Marius again in Rome, triumphant, sends Fimbria and Flaccus to supplant Sylla, but Sylla prevails.
- 3920** Fimbria's legions desert and join Sylla. Fimbria falls on his own sword.
- 3921** The rivalry and commotions amongst the numerous and feeble *Seleucidæ* induced the Syrians to make Tigranes king of Armenia their king. He reigned fourteen years.
- 3922** Sylla returns to Italy, and triumphs over the faction of Marius. Young Pompey and Crassus appear on his side. Cato and Cicero begin their career. Julius Cæsar being nephew to Marius has to fly.
- 3923** *Sylla Dictator*, after defeating Marius in two civil wars, and triumphing over Mithridates in the interval.
- 3925** Sylla abdicates and dies two years after.
- 3928** Bithynia and Cyrene bequeathed to Rome, take the condition of Roman provinces.
- 3929** Second and third *Mithridatic wars*. Lucullus and Cotta Roman commanders.
- 3931** *Servile war*, or insurrection of slaves and gladiators under Spartacus. Sertorius subdued by Pompey and Metellus. Sertorius was assassinated by his companion Perpenna.
- 3933** Mithridates and Spartacus. The former, defeated by Lucullus, flies to his son-in-law Tigranes, king of Armenia. Spartacus destroyed, and the servile war finished by Crassus and Pompey.

- 3937 Mutiny of the soldiers of Lucullus, through which Mithridates recovers his dominions. Foreign conquest resumed after a long interval of domestic convulsions, from the taking of Carthage and Corinth, 3858.
- 3938 Pompey, after destroying the pirates who had infested the Mediterranean, is appointed to supersede Lucullus, whose army would not obey him. He makes Mithridates fly and Tigranes surrender.
- 3939 Pompey subdues Syria, and substantially the Holy Land, by interfering between the contending Maccabee brothers.
- 3941 Cataline's conspiracy defeated by Cicero. Cæsar pleads for a milder punishment for the conspirators: he wished to revive the faction of his uncle Marius.
- 3944 *First Triumvirate.* Pompey has already won laurels over the whole empire. Cæsar goes to gather his in Gaul, which he conquers in ten years. Crassus chooses the East for its riches and splendour.
- 3946 Cicero banished (recalled next year) by the arts and jealousies of the triumvirs. Cato takes Cyprus from Ptolemy. Berenice usurps the throne of her father Ptolemy Auletes.
- 3949 Gabinius and Marc Antony restore Auletes to his throne, for which he is chiefly indebted to the influence of Pompey.
- 3951 Crassus killed in Parthia, which he invaded, blinded by avarice and ambition. Misled by treacherous guides, he saw his son and friends miserably perish, and was perfidiously killed by Surena the Parthian general, at an interview craved by the latter.
- 3953 Cæsar, having finished the conquest of Gaul, was commanded by the Roman senate, with Pompey at their head, to disband his armies: he refused, unless Pompey would also disband his in Spain and elsewhere, crossed the Rubicon, the sacred boundary between Gaul and Rome. Pompey and the senate fled into Greece. Italy, &c. submitted.
- 3954 *Civil war* of Pompey and Julius Cæsar. Italy submits to Cæsar, who also conquered Spain, occupied by Pompey's troops.
- 3956 *Battle of Pharsalia.* Cæsar, with the forces of the West, conquers Pompey, who drew his forces from the East. Pompey's flight. Vale of Tempe. Ægean Sea. Egypt. Basely betrayed and assassinated.
- 3957 Cæsar takes Alexandria, after a perilous quarrel with Ptolemy Diogenes, brother of Cleopatra. He wastes much time in Egypt, while Cato holds out in Africa and young Pompey in Spain.
- 3958 *African war.* Cato kills himself. Juba.
- 3959 *Battle of Munda* in Spain. Cæsar defeats Pompey's sons.
- 3960 Cæsar murdered by Brutus and Cassius, republicans.

- 3961 *Second Triumvirate.* Octavius, Antony, and Lepidus united. After Octavius and Antony had quarrelled nearly a year, Octavius, aided by Cicero and the senate, gained the superiority in the battle of Mutina. These atrocious triumvirs abandon their best friends to satisfy their respective resentments. Octavius resigns his friend Cicero to the resentment of Antony, &c.
- 3962 *Battle of Philippi.* Octavius and Antony defeat Brutus and Cassius, who destroy themselves. They divide the empire, Antony taking the East and Octavius the West.
- 3964 Antony makes a disastrous expedition into Parthia—neglects his affairs for Cleopatra.
- 3965 Ventidius defeats Pacorus the Parthian general, and retrieves the honour lost by Crassus and Marc Antony.
- 3968 Young Pompey, who till this time retained considerable power, and eluded the triumvirs, is this year defeated by Augustus in a sea fight.
- 3972 Great preparations for war between Antony and Octavius. Antony had abandoned himself to pleasures and vanities, and neglected his affairs for Cleopatra.
- 3973 *Civil war. Battle of Actium.* Octavius Cæsar defeats Antony and Cleopatra; and now the Roman world, which had been so long convulsed, and for the last ten years divided, falls to Octavius.
- 3974 After Antony and Cleopatra had returned to Egypt and miserably perished by suicide, Octavius took Alexandria, and made Egypt a Roman province, after it had been under Roman guardianship 173 years, from 3800.
- 3977 The adulation of the Roman senate confers the title of Augustus on Octavius.
- 3982 The conspiracy of Muræna against Augustus.
- 3983 Augustus visits Greece and Asia.
- 3984 The Roman ensign recovered from the Parthians by Tiberius, afterwards emperor.
- 3987 Secular games celebrated.
- 3988 Lollius defeated by the Germans.
- 3989 The Raeti and Vindelici defeated by Drusus.
- 3992 The Pannonians conquered by Tiberius.
- 3993 Several German nations conquered by Drusus.
- 3998 Tiberius retires to Rhodes for seven years.
- 4000 Birth of Christ, actual year.
- 4004 or 1 According to the vulgar era.

Outline of History, from Augustus to Charlemagne, A.D. 800.

Historical Sketches of the Roman Emperors, from Augustus to the extinction of the Western Empire. A.D. 476.

AUGUSTUS. View him, at the death of his uncle Julius, returning from school, aged 19, blending, even then, with the most uncommon coolness, resolution, and sagacity, all the address and dexterity of mature experience. In art and dissimulation consummate and profound; disguising his thirst of glory under the specious pretext of pursuing public justice, and vengeance for his murdered uncle; cloaking his lust of power under professions of republican ardour and devotion; blinding the aged vision of Cicero to win the senate against Antony, taking into his bosom his half subdued enemy, after duly searching his person for concealed daggers; and to this new *friend* sacrificing the former dupes of his duplicity, not sparing the silvery head of Cicero, to whose influence he owed his prosperity. View him tampering with the soldiers, and promising them the farms of innocent thousands, if they followed him to victory. Witness him joined with the profligate and unprincipled Antony, hunting the assassins of his uncle, after he had promised them peace and indemnity, to gain their acquiescence in his measures against the same Antony. Observe his politic forbearance towards the same Antony for ten years, while he ruled the West and Antony the East, till he finds his strength adequate to the defeat and overthrow of his rival. After all his triumphs, when every arm was paralyzed but his own, when all resistance was confounded, all authority centred in him alone, as the source and fountain of law and command, his habitual duplicity flowed on, as if it was the element in which he lived, and as inseparable from his existence as the air. In the exercise of boundless prerogative and power he preserved, with the most scrupulous care, the ancient forms of administration. The powers of consul, tribune, censor, and pontiff, were all lavished on him for life; while his colleagues were, in form, chosen by the senate and people. His government was an absolute monarchy, disguised by the forms of a commonwealth. He was the humble minister of the senate, and obeyed their edicts, because he dictated them.

TIBERIUS. As a prince and public man, his talents and acquirements were highly respectable; his mind was richly cultivated, his ideas and words flowed with enviable ease and readiness; he was acquainted with public life; an able and expert magistrate, and a respectable general. His virtues, however, were not fixed, his principles were loose, he was easily seduced by bad example or precept, and wanted the restraint of a virtuous community to fix his good and check his bad propensities. Naturally dark and dissembling,

by the precepts and example of Augustus, he became, on the throne, chiefly conspicuous for those qualities, which, under different circumstances, might have been concealed, or discoverable only in a common and moderate degree. If he was naturally distrustful, his fortune and experience, as well as the obvious corruption and prevailing hypocrisy of his age, were calculated to multiply and confirm his worst suspicions. If he proved cruel at last, it was more from the disgust, contempt, and fear that the heartless adoration of some men, and the dark machinations of others engendered, than from any innate desire to cause or witness human suffering. Thus far and no farther truth and candour can go in extenuating the atrocious reign of this emperor.

In imitation of his artful master, he pretended to decline the weight of imperial authority, to court only repose, to distrust his adequacy, and to restore to the senate its ancient privileges. Though every member of that body perfectly understood the insincerity of these professions, they were obliged to dissemble their knowledge, and with the most degrading importunity implore their master to seize that which he already held fast, and to hold fast that which he had no inclination to resign.

His stern justice was often provoked by the open insolence and secret practices of his enemies. The adulation of many, the blind treason of some, at once made him despise and hate mankind. The farther he was provoked to oppression or anger, the more dangerous it seemed to resign his authority. A want of sincerity and fixed principle, the force of precept and example, of fortune and accident, and the well-merited contempt of mankind, drove him to the commission of those acts that have the character of deep crime and enormity.

CALIGULA.

A. D. 37.

Caligula, or Caius, the unworthy son of the noble Germanicus and the elder Agrippina, a profligate, abandoned youth, was chosen, chiefly for his congenial views, by Tiberius, for his successor. The commencement of his reign was distinguished by acts of the tenderest regard to his people, whose lives, liberty, and prosperity were respected as sacred. The Roman world enjoyed this delicious repose for eight months; when all the horrors of the preceding reign were renewed, and a career of wanton cruelty, crime, folly, and indecency commenced. Not satisfied with sporting with the living, he assailed the statues and memory of the dead, and replaced the heads of the gods with his own. His profane mockery erected temples and ordered priests to himself, human victims were devoured by wild beasts in his palace; incest and lewdness, theft and murder, received his special patronage and countenance. To his horse Incitatus a palace was erected and domestics assigned; a marble stable and ivory rack, gilt barley, and wine from a golden cup. He fell, at last, by the hand of an assassin.

CLAUDIUS.

A. D. 41.

Claudius succeeded his nephew, Caligula, by appointment of the pretorians, and pursued a mild and popular course, till, through the influence of his wanton and profligate relative Messalina, whom he had married, he became like his predecessors, an inhuman and bloody tyrant. Being of a feeble and stupid mind, he

abandoned the government to vile and flagitious favourites; whose licentiousness and rapacity plundered the state, and set the nation in commotion. His four wives disgraced the imperial name; the notorious Messalina had converted the palace, and even the city, into an imperial brothel: and when he had reluctantly punished her as her lust and debauchery deserved, he espoused his celebrated niece, Agrippina, widow of Domitius, and by him mother of Nero. Her criminal ambition, not satisfied with controlling the administration of her imperial consort; caused him to be poisoned, that her son Nero might supplant Britannicus, son of Claudius, and lawful heir to the throne. The reign of Claudius was signalized by the conquest of Britain; which was achieved entirely by his generals, and was not completed and confirmed till the time of Domitian.

NERO. Nero, son of Domitius and the younger Agrippina, the
A.D. 54. descendant of Antony and Octavia. He was the last of the real Cæsars; a vile profligate, a flagrant criminal, an avowed parricide, a monster, blending the extremes of atrocity with the utmost excesses of the trifling and the ridiculous. The example of four preceding reigns taught or suggested the dissembling virtues with which he began his. But the age must have been blind or stupified, if the son of Domitius or Agrippina, educated in the maxims of imperial depravity, and under the pupilage of his flagitious mother, could impose upon them by the constrained and artificial virtues of an opening administration. Not indignant virtue, nor even impatient censure, could deny this paragon of crime and folly the merit of considerable talent and taste. That he was the author of the conflagration of Rome is a clumsy and palpable calumny; and it is highly probable that his real outrages have suggested and given currency to many that are fictitious. A lover of truth will reject a fiction, even when it favours his prejudices. Nero ordered his mother to be drowned, on a pretended excursion of pleasure; and when accident defeated his intentions, he boldly despatched the assassins to her palace; and without discovering the bloody deed, he sent a letter to the senate, justifying the murder to that body and to the world.

A prostrate king of Armenia might see the lordly potentate, who raised him from the dust, seeking immortal glory in the circus, amphitheatre, or orchestra, contending for the prize in the chariot race or hunt; or distorting his imperial visage, or straining his imperial throat, or trying his imperial lungs, to win the prize. In nocturnal riots, in buffoonery, revelling, and carnivals, his superior was unknown; and though many could excel him in wrestling and music, there was no man audacious enough to claim or award the prize of victory against him.

GALBA. This emperor had risen through every grade of inferior
A.D. 68. office by his great merit; and after enjoying the smiles of several emperors, he was high in command under Nero, when the enormities of that emperor shocked all mankind, drove Vindex into rebellion in Gaul, (afterwards conquered by Virginius,) and Galba himself, in Spain. When the Roman senate heard of these

events they took courage, condemned Nero, and acknowledged Galba, whose army had already proclaimed their aged general. Rome and the world submitted to Galba, and the flying Nero was pursued, overtaken, and despatched.

The virtues of Galba did not qualify him for his imperial elevation; his conduct was feeble, and fluctuated between opposite extremes of parsimony and prodigality, of levity and cruelty. His bounty to the soldiers fell far short of their expectations. Otho, once his advocate, but now recently disappointed in not being adopted for his successor, soon seduced the allegiance of the guards, who being instigated by him, rushed upon their defenceless emperor, and despatched him, after a reign of eight months.

OTHO. Fraud and murder brought this emperor to the throne.

A.D. 69. His former days, under Nero, were marked by dissipation and debauchery, and criminal participation in the course of that emperor. His elevation only served to exhibit more conspicuously the errors that stained his private character and attended him on the throne. His short career offered but few materials for history, unless we should detail his military operations, and three battles with his competitor Vitellius. He sunk under the superior fortune of his rival, and died the Roman death. His gaities, gallantries, voluptuous life, and philosophic death, form his chief characteristics.

VITELLIUS. He was a general in Germany, proclaimed by his own

A.D. 70. troops before the news of Otho's elevation. The struggle was doubtful, and it was his fortune, not his superiority, that prevailed in the last battle, after several defeats. His criminal compliance with the odious vices of the emperors, and the grovelling and congenial propensities of his father and whole family, had secured to him the good graces of several emperors in succession. His gluttony, his unbounded extravagance, debauchery, and devotion to pleasure, might never have been celebrated in history, had he risen no higher than to the rank of general. His cruelties and extortion, after his accession, provoked the horror and detestation of the world, and promoted the glory of the Flavian or Vespasian house, which is just rising like a star in the east, but which, under a Trajan or an Antonine, could never have risen much above the horizon.

The contest between Vitellius and Vespasian has been admirably delineated by Tacitus. The blows and torture inflicted on the prostrate Vitellius, by an infuriated populace, as much attest the savage manners of the age as the odious vices of the victim.

VESPASIAN. The birth of Vespasian was mean: his grandfather

A.D. 70. was a private soldier, and his father a petty officer of the revenue. His own merit raised him through every grade of military government, and placed him in a commanding and conspicuous attitude in the East, when the beastly Vitellius was glutting his enormous appetite and indulging his brutal passions at the expense of a plundered and oppressed people. The indignation of men against the imperial glutton had as much influence as the merit of Vespasian

in elevating the latter to the throne. The nomination of Vespasian proceeded from his own partial army, flushed with recent victory, in the full tide of glory, and panting for the ease and honours of the capital. His success depended on the fate of his arms. His generals led the army to Rome, and overcame the forces of his rival; whose servants, generals, fleets, and armies betrayed him, and whose deformities of mind were enough to turn the universe against him.

The success of Vespasian was not splendid, but his elevation was marked with dignity; his military career had been highly reputable, and through life, by his personal behaviour in the East, he ably fulfilled the public expectations. The glories of his house were amply illustrated by the imperial honour, the brilliant character, and achievements of his son Titus. Though it has been remarked, that his merit was rather useful than shining, yet his wisdom and dignity, his scrupulous and profound attention to the welfare of his people, the success of his administration, his embellishments and improvements of the capital and country, and his worthy son, impart a lustre to his name, in spite of the doubtful charge of "a strict and sordid economy" in his fiscal concerns. The example and magnanimity of the father reclaimed the profligate son from the excesses of indulgence and debauchery.

TITUS. The youth of Titus threatened a terrific reign; but there
A.D. 79. was yet a redeeming principle; and when the indulgent but exemplary father reposed confidence it was not betrayed; and the splendid and more amiable character of Titus, when associated with his father in power, served to turn the public attention from the obscure origin to the future glory of the Flavian family.

Titus was adored by the Eastern legions, which, under his command, had just achieved the conquest of Judea. Though his virtues were clouded by the intemperance of youth, and his designs were suspected, yet, instead of listening to unworthy suspicions, the sagacious and anxious father associated his son in the full power of his imperial dignity; and the grateful son justified the confidence. Under the mild administration of Titus the world enjoyed a transient felicity; and his beloved memory served to screen, above fifteen years, the hideous vices of his brother Domitian.

DOMITIAN. In the character of Domitian there is nothing equi-
A.D. 81 vocal, nothing misunderstood. His passions were too predominant to be concealed by art. Selfish, impetuous, lustful, and impatient, it was dangerous to check or thwart his propensities. Envious, jealous, timid, cowardly, the merit of his servants planted thorns in his breast. Implacable as impetuous, he often retired by himself to brood over his causes of discontent; and his solitude was a prelude to new atrocities. Prone, by nature, to sudden fits of rage, if at any time he had the patience or policy to disguise his anger, it was only smothered, to break out with fiercer rage. He felt the terror he inspired, and his jealous fears often urged him on in his tragic career. His face and eyes flamed with anger and rage. Authors represent him by the figure of a raging tempest, sweeping the country with desolation. Not content, like his tyrannical predecessors, with a single

victim at a time, he sent crowds at once to the slaughter. He would often mock the people, and even senators, with threats, and then dismiss them for his amusement.

Pliny has given a striking picture of Domitian in his solitary retreats. That savage beast shut himself up, as it were, in a den, where he quaffed the blood of his relations; and when he came forth, it was to riot in the destruction of the best and most illustrious citizens. Dismay and terror obstructed his door, and they who were excluded were as much in danger as those who had gained admittance.

The tyrant was horrible to the sight: pride in his aspect, anger in his eye, a feminine whiteness over his whole body; in his countenance an air of vengeance. No man dared approach him, none could speak to him—he remained in darkness, brooding mischief, and never came forth from his solitude, but to make worse solitude, by the destruction of eminent men.

NERVA. Nerva, the first of the five good emperors, ascended the throne. He was old and infirm, and associated with him *Trajan*, who, like his predecessor, was a virtuous prince. *Adrian* was next adopted. He visited the different parts of the empire, reformed abuses, and made many improvements. He was succeeded by *Antoninus Pius*, and he by *Marcus Aurelius Antoninus*, who was the most perfect model of Pagan virtue.

COMMODUS. *Commodus*, his horrid son, succeeded. He renewed all the cruelties and massacres of the reign of Domitian.

PERTINAX. *Pertinax* was chosen by the Pretorian guards; and after reigning eighty-seven days, was put to death by the same hands that placed him on the throne. The empire was then put up at auction, and sold to *Julius Didius*, the highest bidder.

211. *Severus* was then chosen by his army on the Danube, *Niger* in Syria, and *Albinus* in Britain. After the death of *Severus* his two sons, *Caracalla* and *Geta*, came to Rome and succeeded their father; but it was with such feelings of enmity, that they never spoke during the voyage: and after their arrival, the imperial palace was divided between them, and its passages of entrance strictly guarded.

218. *Macrinus* was an African by birth, and the astrologers had foretold his future greatness. Word was sent to *Caracalla* that he was in danger from *Macrinus*; but *Macrinus* being prime minister, first read the letters, kept them, put his master to death, and then fulfilled the prophecy. He reigned but a short time, and was succeeded by

Heliogabalus, a boy of but fourteen. At this early age he showed himself a monster of profligacy and cruelty; and though he reigned but four years, yet, in this short time, he exhausted all his resources. He married and divorced six wives.

222. *Alexander Severus* was a mild and amiable prince. Young as he was, he undertook, and rendered successful, an expedition against Parthia. A mutiny was raised by *Maximus*, who asserted that the emperor was a feeble and unambitious prince, unfit to govern a great empire; so he was put to death in his camp, and *Maximus*, who was descended from some straggling Goths, succeeded. This caused mu-

tiny and rebellion in many parts of the empire. The two *Gordians* were appointed, but in sixty days they were both dead. The youngest was killed in attempting to defend himself against one of Maximus' creatures at Carthage, and the other killed himself in despair.

Maximus and *Balbinus* were next appointed; and on reaching Rome the senate wished to unite Gordian 3rd, a boy of twelve years of age, as their colleague. Maximus and Balbinus were assassinated, and the dominion left to Gordian, who proved a good and worthy prince.

Philip, an Arabian by birth, put Gordian to death, and succeeded. During his reign the Goths invaded Asia Minor, and, entering Greece, desolated and laid waste the country. Philip nominated *Decius* to go against the Goths, and sent him to Mæsia and Thrace. After two years successful movement against them, he was unfortunately killed, in the confusion of battle, in a morass.

Gallus, instead of pursuing, against the Goths, the course marked out by Decius, hired them to leave the empire. This put him out of favour; and *Valerian*, after defeating him in battle, was appointed his successor. He made an unsuccessful expedition against the Parthians. The Goths, enabled by the money paid them, again renewed their attacks, defeated the Romans, and took their emperor prisoner.

Gallienus, his son and successor, was a man of talents, but he did nothing towards suppressing the Goths. He associated with him Odenatus, who was styled colleague of Gallienus and emperor of the East. He was assassinated, and Zenobia, his queen, succeeded him.

Zenobia resisted Gallienus and *Claudius* his successor, who might have subdued her had he reigned longer. He reigned but two years, and was succeeded by *Aurelian*; who attacked her in Palmyra, her capital, and obliged her to surrender it. He left her mistress of the city, but limited her authority to that and returned home. On arriving at the Bosphorus he heard that Zenobia was queen of the East, with Palmyra for her capital, and Egypt and Syria as part of her dominions. With great indignation he returned, again besieged Palmyra, took it, and carried the queen to grace his triumph at Rome. After this he dismissed her honourably, with palaces and villas for her habitation, and her children were among the first nobility in Italy.

275. Aurelian was killed, and the government was, for eight months, under ministers, until *Tacitus* was elected. He reigned but eight months, and was succeeded by his brother *Florian*, and he by *Probus*, a great emperor, and a favourite with the senate.

Carus, a rustic, marched against the Parthians and was killed by lightning in his own camp, and Numerian and Carinus succeeded.

Numerian was poisoned and *Carinus* made peace with the Parthians. He was a mere buffoon; prided himself more on his knowledge of cookery than his sagacity in political affairs.

284. Diocletian introduces a new system, that of imperial colleagues, designed to repel the barbarians and recover the provinces that had been wrested from the empire. Diocletian and Maximian were styled Augustus, and each had an assistant of equal power, but with the inferior title of Cæsar. Diocletian resided at Nicomedia, Maximian at Milan, Galerius on the banks of the Danube, and Constantius Chlorus in such parts of Gaul or Britain as required his presence. Diocletian

was the only great man among them; Constantius Chlorus was a good man, but Maximian and Galerius were both unprincipled and savage. As long as Diocletian reigned he kept the empire in perfect order, and displayed talents in every department of government, in his ascendancy over the minds of men, and in his selection of officers, which have caused him to be not inaptly compared to Augustus.

304 After a joint reign of twenty years, he and Maximian re-
Abdication. signed. Galerius took the title of Augustus, and chose two Cæsars in the East, viz. Maximinus and Licinius; and obliged Constantius, the other Augustus, to accept Severus as his Cæsar.

In less than a year after the abdication Maximian reappeared, with his son Maxentius, overcame Severus, and took his place. Constantine succeeded his father Constantius; and Galerius dying soon after, he was left to sweep from the stage Maximian, Maxentius, Maximin, and Licinius. Maximian fled from his own son to Constantine, who had married his daughter; but afterwards endeavoured to supplant him, and was murdered in consequence.

In **312** Constantine invaded Italy, and gained three great battles over Maxentius, who, after suffering a complete route in the last, was drowned in crossing the Tiber. On the destruction of Maxentius, Constantine united with Licinius, and left him to destroy Maximin whilst he opposed the Franks. A quarrel ensued between the two victors, in which Licinius was worsted, though he still reigned eight

Empire united
under Con-
stantine.

years in Thrace, Asia, and Egypt. In another civil war Licinius is removed from the scene, and Constantine stands before us the sole monarch of a united empire.

The life of Constantine may be divided thus:—1st. His civil wars; 2d, The building of New Rome, or Constantinople, which occupied nearly all the rest of his reign; 3d, The legal adoption of Christianity, which ended persecution by the heathen; but led to persecution of them, and to persecutions among the Christians themselves. Constantinople became the residence of the Eastern emperors for eleven hundred years.

Constantine.

Death of three sons; Constantius in the East, Constans in the Middle, and Constantine in the West. Constans soon met and defeated Constantine in battle, thus adding the West to his portion. He was dis-

350

Constantius
Augustus.

placed in 350 by Magnentius, a usurper; whom Constantius

immediately pursued and slew, and thus became sole emperor. It had been the policy of these brothers to rid themselves of all their relations; two only had been spared, their

Julian Cæsar.

cousins, Julian and Gallus; and Constantius now feeling the want of a colleague, raised Julian to the rank of Cæsar, and gave him command of the armies in Gaul. The new Cæsar remained faithful until he had settled the Gallic frontier; but when Constantius then demanded his troops for the Persian service, they mutinied, and gave Julian the choice of "the purple or death." Deciding upon the former, he immediately pursued his cousin, wishing to meet him at Constanti-

Constantius
dies.

nople; but the death of Constantius at this time gave him peaceable possession of the throne.

361 Julian's first act was to decree the restoration of the Pagan worship; he, however, professed entire toleration. After a short reign, in which he proved himself a wise and very active prince, he was killed in an expedition against the Persians.

Jovian. Jovian then filled the throne for a few months. Christianity was restored, and Paganism sunk for ever.

363 The voice of the nation next named Valentinian their ruler. He bestowed the East, with the title of Augustus, upon his brother Valens.

The empire of the West, at this time, was subject to constant incursions from the barbarians, whom Valentinian successfully opposed in many battles. He died in an expedition against the Quadi, 375. Wars with Persia, Britain, and Africa also distracted the empire. Gratian and Valentinian 2d succeeded in the West; and the death of the inefficient Valens soon left the East in the hands of Theodosius, surnamed the Great.

Theodosius the Great. A.D. 395. Maximus revolted in Britain, invaded Gaul, caused Gratian to be slain, and compelled Theodosius to accept him for a colleague. But, not contented with his good fortune, this usurper soon after attacked Valentinian 2d in Italy, and drove him from his dominions. This latter sought the protection of Theodosius, who defeated Maximus, put him to death, and restored the throne to his colleague Valentinian, its rightful owner. By the death of Valentinian, Theodosius was, soon after, left sole emperor. After a reign of sixteen years he died, leaving the empire divided between his

395 two sons; Arcadius in the East, (Constantinople,) and Honorius in the West, (Milan.) The Eastern retained the name of Roman empire. It was called Greek, Lower, Byzantine, and Eastern Roman Empire. The Western, called Latin Roman Empire, crumbled to pieces, and, in less than one hundred years, was settled by barbarians.

The Latin empire. During the reign of the trembling Honorius Italy was four years in possession of the Visigoths; Rome was sacked,

410 after being three times besieged by the mighty Alaric, and Ravenna became the capital of the ruined empire.

439 Africa was torn from the empire by the Vandals. Attila invaded Gaul and Italy soon after. His death, in 453, was followed by the dissolution of the tremendous empire of the Huns.

455 Rome was sacked by the Vandals from Africa; the Visigoths became possessed of a large part of Spain and of Gaul; and, finally, A. D. 476, Odoacer, king of the Heruli, took the title of King of Italy, and extinguished the Western Roman Empire.

Historical Sketches of the Movements and final settlement of the Barbarians.

Besides being distracted by internal commotions, and broken into fragments by usurpers, the frontier provinces of the Roman empire were continually subject to incursions from the northern barbarians. Before the age of the Antonines, the Goths from Scandinavia were established south of the Baltic, and the Vandals, also from Scandinavia, were spread along the banks of the Oder. The *Goths* are subdivided into Ostrogoths, Visigoths, and Gepidae; the Vandals into Herulians, Burgundians, Lombards, and many other formidable tribes. By the year 250 the Franks are settled in Belgium, the Alemanni in Swabia, the Visigoths and Ostrogoths north of the Black Sea. After being repeatedly driven from Asia Minor and Greece, the Ostrogoths, or eastern Goths, are in 374 entangled with the Huns, a hideous race of deformed savages from Central Asia.

Ostrogoths entangled with the Huns.

VISIGOTHS.

374 The Visigoths, so called from their position west of the Ostrogoths were driven by the same wild tribe across the Danube into Moesia and Thrace, where, on promising to be peaceable, obedient subjects, they were allowed to settle. But their wandering, predatory habits, rendered submission almost impossible. They rebelled against Valens, whose imprudence in admitting them into the empire was now manifest, and in the battle of Adrianople he was defeated and slain. The energetic valour of Theodosius for a while suppressed them, but at his death, 395, they chose Alaric for their leader; and marching with rapine, and plunder, and devastation, threatened the very walls of Constantinople. They entered Greece, and pursued their course as far south as the Peloponnesus, where they were met and driven back by the victorious Stilicho, a general of the Western empire. Nothing daunted by defeat, they prepared to march into Italy, where they met with greater success. In the year 400 the trembling Honorius, the feeble emperor of the West, deserted his capital, and fled before them to Ravenna. Again they were defeated by Stilicho, but in 409, re-entering Italy, they twice besieged Rome. The first time their retreat was purchased; but receiving a reinforcement of 300,000 men, Alaric again pitched his camp before the imperial city. Being reduced to the most distressing extremities by pestilence and famine, the mighty mistress of the world opened her gates to the barbarous forces. For seven days they laid waste with unsparing hand its costly edifices, and revelled among its riches with unrestrained ferocity. Leaving Rome a heap of desolate ruins, they proceeded south, intending to pass into Sicily and Africa, but the death of Alaric stopped their progress. In the bed of the river Vulturnus, (Gibbon says Busentinus,) enclosed in three coffins, they left the remains

Visigoths settle in Moesia and Thrace.

Adrianople.

Enter Italy.

410

Rome taken.

Death of Alaric.

of their chief, and choosing Ataulphus for their leader, marched to the south of Gaul. Here, in 412, in the province of Aquitania, they established a splendid kingdom, called the kingdom of Toulouse, which lasted 100 years. Driven thence by the Franks, in 493, they finally settled in Spain, where they remained until "Roderick the last of the Goths" was conquered by the Moors in 712.

Kingdom of
Toulouse.

Finally settle
in Spain.

SUEVI.

The brave Suevi are first found filling the country between the Oder and the Danube. About the year 210 a mixed body of them began to move southward, and taking the name of Alemanni, penetrated, in the reign of Valerian and Gallienus, as far as Ravenna. Gallienus succeeded in dividing their forces, and in enlisting a body of the Heruli in the service of Rome. In 269 they came down upon Moesia and Thrace, but were signally defeated, and almost exterminated by the emperor Claudius. They afterwards unite with the Vandals and Alans, and passing through Gaul, in 409, are again disunited, and finally settle in the north-west of Spain.

BURGUNDIANS.

While the Visigoths were in Italy, 409, the Burgundians, a tribe of savages from the southern shores of the Baltic, had established themselves in Switzerland and the east of Gaul. They were the first barbarians who established laws, and being converted to Christianity, obtained from the emperor of Constantinople the right to govern the original inhabitants. Agriculture and the care of their flocks was their peaceful employment, until 534, when they were conquered by Clovis the monarch of the Franks.

409
Settle in
Switzerland.

534
Conquered by
the Franks.

SAXONS.

In the year 429 Britain, which had been conquered by Claudius Cæsar, fifty years after the Christian era, was abandoned by the Romans, and for twenty years left a prey to the incursions of the Picts and Scots. In 449 the Saxons of Germany, coming ostensibly to deliver the Britains from their enemies, gradually conquered the country, and at the end of 150 years established what was termed the Saxon Heptarchy, or seven kingdoms. The natives retired into Wales, and under king Arthur and other brave leaders, for a long time annoyed the newly founded kingdom. This government continued until 828, when the Heptarchy, under Egbert the Great, king of Wessex, was reduced to a monarchy.

Romans
abandon Bri-
tain.

Conquered by
the Saxons.

Heptarchy.

Monarchy.

VANDALS.

The Vandals from Scandinavia, the Alans from the country west of the Caspian Sea, and the Suevi, the bravest of all the German tribes, united in Germany, and after passing through Gaul, crossed the Pyrenees, and in 409 again separated, the Alans and Suevi settling in Portugal, and the Vandals in the south of Spain.

Vandals in
Spain.

429 In Africa. In 429, invited by Count Boniface, the Vandals, under Genseric their king, conquered the Roman province in the north of Africa, and formed a settlement there. After traversing the coast as far east as Carthage, they embarked for Sicily. Invited by Eudoxia, the widow of Valentinian 3d, to avenge the murder of her husband, in 455, Genseric passed into Italy and laid siege to Rome. For fourteen days he abandoned it to be pillaged by his soldiers, and the few monuments of its former greatness left by Alaric, were levelled with the dust. The Vandals remained in Africa until 535, when Gelimer, their last king, was conquered by Belisarius, and led in triumph to the court of Justinian.

HUNS.

This most savage of barbarian tribes came from the remote deserts of Central Asia. Their first grand movement is in 375. They then cross the Volga, enter Europe, and routing the Goths unite them to their army, and pass on to Hungary, ravaging with frightful devastation the north of Greece. Under their renowned king Attila they invade Gaul, and lay siege to the city of Orleans. Driven from thence by the united forces of Ætius, the Roman general, and Theodoric, king of the Visigoths, they are defeated in 450, with the loss of 300,000 men at Chalons. They next enter Italy, where, through the terror of their arms, the people of many towns submitted, and the remainder fled the *land*, and on seven islands in the *sea* laid the foundation of the city of Venice, 452. The retreat of Attila was purchased by a promise of receiving the princess Honoria, the sister of Valentinian 3d, in marriage, and with her an immense dowry. He returned to his wooden palace beyond the Danube, and died of apoplexy, after a night spent in feasting and revelry, and with him ends the great Hunnish empire.

HERULI, OSTROGOTHS, AND LOMBARDS.

476 Odoacer king of Italy. The Heruli, a people of Vandalic origin, and settled for a while west of the sea of Asoph, in 476, under Odoacer their king, conquer Italy, where having deposed the feeble Augustulus, Odoacer assumes the title of king of Italy, and thus terminates the Western Roman Empire. For seventeen years these barbarians keep possession of Italy, until 493, when Theodoric, king of the Ostrogoths, (formerly entangled with the Huns,) after threatening Constantinople, conquers Odoacer, and fixing his residence at Ravenna, in his turn becomes king of Italy. Meantime Belisarius, the victorious general of Justinian, had conquered the Vandals of Africa, and in 535 he entered Italy. After great prodigies of valour, he subdued the Ostrogoths, and Italy in the year 550 became a part of the Eastern Roman Empire. Under the administration of Narses, it for a while enjoyed peace and prosperity; but Narses falling under the displeasure of the emperor Justin 2d, betrayed his country by invit-

568 ing Alboin king of the Lombards to the invasion of Italy. Lombards. In 568, leaving Pannonia, where they occupied the lands formerly deserted by the Ostrogoths, the Lombards enter Italy, and without plunder, march peacefully and in good order through the country. After many towns had opened their gates to them, they established their capital at Pavia, and took possession of the north and middle of Italy, leaving to the eastern emperors only Ravenna and Ancona on the eastern coast, Rome and Naples on the western coast. These towns were governed by exarchs, and this relative position of the Lombards and Eastern emperors, caused continual warfare, until 774, when Charlemagne conquered the whole, and added Italy to the empire of the Franks.

FRANKS.

About 240, A.D., the name of Franks, or Freeman, is supposed to have originated in a confederacy of some barbarous tribes about the Rhine and Weser, and in twenty years they pushed their conquests through Gaul and Spain and passed into Africa.

486 Again, in 486, an association of these people, under Clovis, entered Gaul, and after gaining several battles over the Burgundians, were baptized into the Christian faith. The possessions of Alaric, king of the Visigoths, were next attacked with equal success, and before the year 500 the whole country was conquered.

500
Gaul changed
to France.

*Historical Sketch of the Greek, or Eastern Roman Empire, from A. D. 441 to the time of Charlemagne.**

441 In the reign of Theodosius the younger, successor of Arcadius, Attila ravaged the east, as far as Constantinople.

The Greek empire. Passing several obscure names we reach the family of

527 Justinian. Justinian, the greatest of the eastern emperors. He succeeded his uncle, Justin the elder, who had risen from the peasantry to the throne. The reign of Justinian is rendered famous by his Code of Laws, and by the success of his generals, Belisarius and Narses. Belisarius wrested Africa from the Vandals, subdued Sicily and a great part of Italy, and regained Rome. The jealousy of Justinian recalled him to Constantinople; and his conquests rapidly fell back into the hands of Totila, the Ostrogoth. He was again sent, and retook Rome; but his progress was hindered by the meanness of his master, who, finally rewarded his faithful services by ignominy, a prison, and death. Rome remained in the possession of the Greek empire until 568, during the reign of Justin 2d, when a great part of Italy was taken by the Lombards.

610 Heraclius, the first of his family, came to the throne. He is famous for his great victories over the Persians in many campaigns.

* A continuation from the History of the Roman Emperors.

Mahomet first tried his sword against foreigners in an invasion of Syria during this reign; and his successors stripped the old monarch of Syria, Africa, and all his acquisitions in Persia.

The Heraclian family filled the throne during the seventh century and were followed by the Isaurian; so called from their native place Isauria, in Asia Minor. They were Iconoclasts—image breakers.

When persecution ceased and Christianity triumphed, its professors fell from the first spirituality of their faith, and looked for something of corporeal presence—that the eye might behold, the hands touch—to call their wandering minds back to devotion. Images and idolatry were introduced. A pretended likeness of our Saviour, painted by St. Luke, long concealed, was miraculously discovered. As it was an undoubted likeness, and painted by a saint, they thought there could be no harm in adoring it. This was the beginning of image worship. Likenesses of the Virgin Mary and of all the Apostles were found in the same manner; and, in the time of Leo the Isaurian, all the East consented to worship them.

Leo the Iconoclast. A simple, uncultivated man, of strong native sense, an Isaurian general raised himself to the throne of Constantinople; and looking upon this idolatry with disgust, called a council, which forbade the worship of images. The decree was carried into effect by the sword, and Constantinople became the scene of civil war. Images were destroyed throughout the eastern churches. The emperors then endeavoured to carry the edict into effect in their dominions on the coasts of Italy. Rome and Ravenna revolted, but Naples and the south submitted to the command.

The fourth of the Isaurian family is reigning when we take leave of them, A. D. 800.

Continuation of the History of Gaul, to the time of Charlemagne, A. D. 800.

Gaul always exposed to incursions from German barbarians. Though Gaul generally remained submissive, the vigilance of the Roman emperors was always necessary to defend the German and Batavian frontiers. Germany beyond the Rhine was often penetrated by Roman armies, but never quite subdued. Defeats were frequent and fatal, victories costly and fruitless. Emperor after emperor had to repeat the defensive wars of his predecessor. In the time of Augustus even the Roman arms suffered the most shameful disgraces, and mutiny increased these horrors in the time of Tiberius. In the time of Vespasian, the famous Batavian Civilis armed and inflamed his nation, and with them enlisted the whole German nation in a most frightful rebellion.

Gaul conquered by the Franks. Gaul often stood separate from the Roman empire under usurpers. Its painful recovery by the emperors aggravated the miseries of the world. About A. D. 250, we find the savage Franks and Allemanni planted along the Rhine; from which time the Roman arms were perpetually exercised in defending Gaul against

their dreadful inroads. At last, about A. D. 500, the Franks having first overcome the Allemani, spread themselves over Gaul, to which, from them, the name of France was fixed, instead of Gaul. The Burgundians and Visigoths, who had previously settled in Gaul, were obliged either to submit to the Franks, or flee into other countries, as the Visigoths did into Spain.

The Clovingian race, from Clovis, commonly called the Merovingian, from Meroveus his grandfather—about 250 years, from about A.D. 500 to 750.

Clovis was a politic and enterprising prince, and established a powerful kingdom. But though he embraced the Christian faith through the persuasion of his wife, Clotilda, and made his Pagan Franks follow his example, yet neither he nor his people ever forgot their original ferocity.

After the death of Clovis, the custom of dividing the French monarchy among several sons, led to the most frightful cruelties and disorders. The final and total degeneracy of the whole race threw all the royal power into the hands of *hereditary* ministers, called Mayors of the palace. Pepin the Elder, Charles Martel, and the second or younger Pepin, ruled France under this singular title, while the slumbering kings, mere phantoms of royalty, only retained the mere name.

Carlovingian or Pepingian kings, about 250 years, from 750 to 1000. [987.]

Pepin the Second reduced the last Clovingian king to a monk, and united the *title* of king to the *power* which he already possessed, 750, and obtained the papal sanction to his usurpation.

Frank Western Roman Empire.

Pepin, and after him his son Charlemagne, (Charles the Great,) grew in power, and triumphed in arms, till, under the latter, Lombardy, (Italy,) Germany, and part of Spain received the yoke of the French. After thirty cruel and bloody campaigns, Charles assumed the splendid title of Charles Augustus Cæsar, Emperor of the West, with the solemn sanction of the pope at Rome, A. D. 800; and thus we have a French Western empire, or Western Roman empire, restored by Franks.

But this splendid fabric, (cotemporary with the great Saracen empire,) was dissolved almost as soon as Charlemagne died, by family discord and papal intrigue. The imperial title was perpetuated in the same family till 712, when it passed to the Germans; but it continually shifted from one branch to another, and from one country to another, till it finally rested, 912, on the imperial Cæsars of Germany, and the *German* Carlovingian branch became then extinct. In France the degenerate Carlovingians continued till Hugh Capet deposed the last of the race, 987.

A recapitulation of the Roman History, from A.D. 1, to the reign of Charlemagne, A.D. 800.

4th Period.
(Imperial Rome)
250 years from
the vulgar era,
A.D. I—A.M. 4004
A.U.C. 750—to
A.D. 250, when
the whole impe-
rial fabric was
rent into frag-
ments by usurpers
and competitors.

The first, most natural, and most imposing reflection is, that this period presents the origin, propagation, and fiery ordeal of CHRISTIANITY. A universal empire, and two universal languages facilitated the intercourse of men, and the propagation of the gospel. How the foresight of the final triumph of such a religion, 325, (see next period,) and of a universal Christian monarchy at Rome, (see period 7, papal Rome,) would have confounded the mind of

Augustus Cæsar!

What a field for an imperial master, either to display splendid virtues or perpetuate enormous crimes—in an immense empire, assimilated and cemented by the artful policy of ages! But bad men generally prevailed, and Rome, excepting a few illustrious intervals, generally declined in virtue, power, and unity, till it was even prematurely dissolved; for it required enormous violence to rend asunder parts so firmly woven together. The idea is too immense to find place even in the most contemplative mind. Virtues and crimes, disorders and their remedies—all on a grand scale of magnificence. Whether the emperor was a patriot, a philosopher, a tyrant, a stage actor, or a buffoon, he performed on the same magnificent stage. The same imperial code, the same spirit of despotism pervading the whole; it formed one immense prison, from which the accused or oppressed could only escape to their inevitable fate among the wild savages of the inhospitable deserts around.

In this age the edict of an execrable tyrant, Caracalla, extended the bounds of the Roman city (*legally*) to the utmost limits of the empire. In one breath the most remote *subjects* were all declared Roman *citizens*, with all the privileges of native citizens; and condemned to the same vexatious taxes, tributes, and exactions. The mind shrinks at the thought of such a world, convulsed within, and assailed on all sides by howling savages and wild barbarians. But such is the appalling picture presented, 250, at the end of this gloomy period; and the empire is entirely dissolved, divided among competitors, and assailed on all sides.

5th Period.
Imperial Rome.
250 years, from
A.D. 250, when
Romania was
prematurely and
transiently dis-
solved, down to
the complete oc-
cupation of the
West by German
barbarians,
A.D. 500.

Though we find the empire in confusion, yet the idea of its unity was still sufficiently pervading to encourage the splendid talents and efforts of Probus, Claudius, Aurelian, Diocletian, Constantine, and Theodosius, in their respective times, in reducing to obedience the revolted provinces. From the commencement of this period we find the Franks and Alemanni already seated on the Rhine, and the Ostrogoths and Visigoths on the North of the Black Sea. The Huns also rushed from Asia unto Europe, 374, and subdued the Ostrogoths, and chased the Visigoths into

Thrace. All these new savage races exercised the vigilance of the emperors, and helped to precipitate the downfall of the empire.

^{325, Triumph and corruption of Christianity.} The cruel and wanton persecutions of this age, (those of Decius, Valerian, Aurelian, and Diocletian,) were arrested, 325, by the triumph of Constantine the Great over all colleagues and competitors, which proved also the final triumph of Christianity over Paganism. Constantine unfortunately not only gave the Church a legal existence, but made it an affair of the state. The wealth and power he conferred on the Church corrupted Christianity, and proved a greater burthen to the Church than all the Pagan persecutions, which had tended to preserve its simplicity and purity. Besides, the moment that the Pagan persecutions ceased, Christians divided into innumerable hostile sects, and persecuted one another with the most implacable and unrelenting fury.

Circumstances tending to the division and dissolution of the empire ; Milan, capital of the West ; Constantinople, or New Rome ; frequent divisions among colleagues and competitors. The new organization of the empire made by Diocletian, placed the East and the West each under the immediate charge of a distinct emperor, (imperial colleagues,) while, at the same time, it preserved the unity of the whole, by a uniformity of imperial laws and edicts. Without the ascendant genius of Diocletian, the frequent repetition of the same division afterwards, weakened the bond of union, by making the idea of division familiar ; and it even awakened ideas of separate and conflicting interests. The convenient removal of the imperial residence from Rome to Milan, towards the German frontier, soon broke the charm of Roman supremacy ; and Constantinople, (the New Rome, and rival Rome of the East,) had the same tendency. The almost continual division of the empire among the sons and successors of Constantine, finally resulted in a complete and permanent division into East and West, at the death of Theodosius the Great, A. D. 395. The *Eastern Roman Empire* was called also *Greek, Lower, Byzantine Empire, or Empire of Constantinople*. It lasted till 1453.

AD. 409—500. *The dissolution of the Western Roman Empire begins at once after this division. Ravenna becomes the capital of the West, instead of Milan.* This division of the empire, between Honorius and Arcadius, the sons of Theodosius, was not a more formal separation, than was usual between two colleagues. But the East and the West had distinct interests, dangers, and calamities, and the West began at once to yield, piecemeal, to the savage Germans.

^{Barbarian settlements in the west from 400—500.} The Visigoths who had been driven (374) by the hideous and deformed Huns, into Moesia and Thrace, began the work of desolation in Greece as soon as Theodosius died, 395. From Greece they went into Italy twice, besieged and sacked Rome, 409, and were persuaded, 412, to pass into Gaul and establish in Aquitania the Visigothic kingdom of Thoulouse. In the meantime, the trembling Honorius had fled before Alaric, the Visigothic king, when he first entered Italy ; and changed the imperial residence from Milan to Ravenna, which long continued the capital of Italy. In 409, just before the Visigoths settled in Aquitania, the Vandals passed through Gaul, and settled in the south of Spain ; while

the Burgundians, the same year, 409, crossed the Rhine into Helvetia and the east of Gaul. In 429, the province of Africa became a Vandal kingdom. In 449, the Saxons began to conquer Britain, which the emperor had abandoned twenty years before to the mercy of the Picts and Scots. The Saxons, however, did not complete the conquest of England till 600. About 450, the terrible Huns scourged Gaul and Italy, but did not settle in any province. In 455, Genseric, the Vandal king of Africa, sacked Rome. The succession of western emperors finally ended in 476, when Odoacer, king of the Heruli, subdued Italy, and took the title of king of Italy instead of emperor. Though this was the end of the western Roman empire, there was still a part of Gaul that was *Roman*, that is, was not yet occupied by barbarians; but in 486, Clovis, king of the Franks, in the fifth year of his reign, conquered Syagrius, the last Roman governor, and in the course of about twenty-five years, Gaul became the kingdom of the Franks. The Visigoths of Aquatania were gradually driven into Spain, which became a Visigothic monarchy about 500; and the Burgundians and Alemanni we also obliged to submit to the Franks, In the mean time, the Ostrogoths entered Italy, 493, subdued the Heruli, and swayed the country till 535.

About 435, Ostrogothia, or the Ostrogothic kingdom of Italy, was assailed by the arms of the Eastern emperor Justinian, whose famous general Belisarius, after reducing the Vandal kingdom of Africa, under his Eastern master, was occupied from 535 to 550 in subduing and re-subduing Italy and Sicily. Thus Italy in its turn became a province of the East, and *Old Rome* was subjected to *New Rome*. (Constantinople.)

Italy and Africa were splendid acquisitions to the East, but on the death of Justinian, 568, the fierce Lombards rushed into Italy, conquered the north and central regions, and established the kingdom of Lombardy, which lasted 206 years, from 568 to 774. The emperors of Constantinople still retained both coasts, and the south, including on one side Rome and Naples, and on the other Ravenna and Ancona. These possessions were governed by an Eastern governor, called exarch of Ravenna, and that part of Italy that belonged to the East, was the exarchate.

The division of Italy between the Lombards and Greek emperors, proved most unhappy, and the feeble emperors, assailed by Persians and Saracens on the east, maintained a precarious and contested authority over their part of Italy; and the ferocious Lombards preyed on all the rest. The pope and patriarch of Constantinople were in a continual wrangle. Safe in his distant province, the bishop of Rome assumed, even towards his Greek emperor, a bold and lofty style of defiance, and the pious shepherd insensibly gained, over his Roman flock, the influence of a civil magistrate. As successor to St. Peter, and bishop of the ancient metropolis, he claimed the character of universal bishop; his address (about 600) had brought the pagan Saxons, as well as the Arian Visigoths and Lombards, into the bosom of the Catholic church; the ignorance of the age, and the alms he distributed from his immense revenues, favoured his pretensions.

6th Period.
The west occupied by barbarians, 250 years from A.D. 500 to 750, when Rome becomes Papal Rome.

Exarchate and Lombardy.

Bishops of Rome, (popes,) and patriarchs of Constantinople; schism of the east and west; image war; revolt of Ravenna, Rome, and pope.

Finally Ravenna, Rome, and the pope revolted from their Greek master, who (728) by a decree against images and image worship, had kindled a furious religious war both in the East and West. The images of course won the victory in such an age, and only Naples and the south of Italy remained subject to the East.

7th Period.
Papal Rome, 750 years, commencing A.D. 750, when the pope became a temporal prince, and ending 1500, when the protestant reformation arrested the career of papal ambition.

After the revolt of Rome and Ravenna, the Lombard king improved the auspicious moment, seized Ravenna, and only spared Rome out of respect to the eloquence and sacred character of the holy pontiff. But when Rome was threatened by another Lombard prince less scrupulous, he sought the protection of his pious friend Pepin, the Frank. Pepin was not only able to save, but willing to accept, in return, the gracious sanction of the holy father, to his usurpation of the throne of France, (see Gaul.)

He flew to the relief of his holiness, retook Ravenna from the Lombards, and piously gave the spoil to St. Peter, whose pretended successor, the bishop of Rome, took the earthly charge of the sacred patrimony. Already a magistrate at Rome, the pope now becomes a *temporal prince*, as viceregent of a saint in heaven! From this time we may more particularly style Rome *papal*; though the pope did not become a formidable potentate till after the death of his powerful protectors, Pepin and Charlemagne.

Conquest of Lombardy and Germany by Charlemagne.

The Franks allowed the Lombards to retain their ancient possessions till 774, when Charlemagne, the son of Pepin, being called into Italy to protect Rome against the Lombards, conquered their country, and was crowned king of Lombardy. In thirty cruel campaigns he conquered Germany, and baptized the pagan Saxons at the point of the sword. Part of Spain was also added to his immense empire.

800
Frank, Western Roman Empire, or Western Rome restored by Charlemagne.

Charlemagne (Charles the Great) being invited to Rome to protect Pope Leo III, against the fury of his own flock, was solemnly crowned emperor of the West, under the name of Charles Augustus Cæsar. (See Gaul.) As Rome was expressly included in this great political fabric, the relation between the pope and the new emperor was of

a very delicate nature. But the ascendancy of *Charlemagne* was not to be shaken by a priest who was unable to control his own flock; and mutual good offices preserved a gracious and undisturbed intimacy. The papal sanction to the usurpation of Pepin and Charlemagne, and the holy unction, poured on the imperial head, were not *trifles* likely to be overlooked by future popes, who could dexterously employ them in extorting new concessions, or baffle weak princes by withholding them. Though the supremacy of *Charlemagne* over Rome and the pope was clear and undisputed, yet future popes could choose between rival candidates, and the one a pope chose to *approve* and *anoint*, was most likely to prevail in a disputed succession. By these means it was that succeeding popes arrayed people against their princes, *one prince* against another, and *even sons* against their fathers; and caught the balance of political power, which they managed with sufficient dexterity to erect at Rame a throne of despotism tenfold more frightful than

that of the worst tyrants of ancient imperial Rome. No sooner was Charlemagne dead, than the succeeding popes began to inflame, instead of healing the discord of his descendants; and this artful policy soon made them the arbiters of princes.

Historical sketch of the Saracens.

The term Saracen. The term Saracen signifies Arabian and Mahometan, and includes an idea of conquest. It was originally merely the designation of a single tribe in Arabia.

There are two successive Mahometan empires, viz. The Saracen or Arabian Mahometan empire, and the Turkish Mahometan empire. To the Saracen Mahometan empire may be allowed four periods, viz.

1st Period.—The period of the elective caliphs residing at Medina, viz. Mahomet, Abubeker, Omar, Othman, Ali. This period extended from 622 to 665, or 43 years.

2d Period.—The period of the Ommiades, or the hereditary caliphs, descended from Ommyah, (whence they derive their name,) residing at Damascus. This period extends from 665 to 750, when Spain separated under an Ommiades prince, a period of 85 years.

3d Period.—The first period of the Abbassides, or caliphs descended from Abbas, an uncle of the prophet residing at Bagdad. This period extends from 750 to 850, 100 years. This is the glorious magnificent and powerful period of the Abbassides.

4th Period.—The second period of the Abbassides at Bagdad, being the falling or crumbling period of the Saracen empire, extending from 850 to 1258.

TABLE OF SARACEN CONQUESTS.

A. D.	Birth of Mohammed.		Commence- ment of the conquests.		End.
569	Begins to preach.		A. D. 638	<i>Begin the conquest of Egypt.</i>	639
609	Hegira, or Flight.			Capture of Pelusium and Memphis, 638.	
622	Conquest of Arabia.			Capture of Alexandria, and final conquest of Egypt	639
629	Death of Mohammed.				
632					
Commence- ment of the conquests.		End of the conquests.			
632	<i>Begin to conquer Syria.</i>	638			
	Battle of Bozrah, 632.				
	Battle of Aiznadin, 633.				
	Siege and capture of Damascus, 634.		709	<i>Final conquest of Africa, by the taking of Carthage.</i>	709
	Capture of Balbec and Emessa, 635.				
	Battle on the Yermuk, 636.		711	<i>Conquest of Spain, except Asturias</i>	714
	Surrender of Jerusalem, 637.				
	Surrender of Aleppo and Antioch, 638.		823	<i>Conquest of Crete.....</i>	823
	Final conquest of Syria.	638			
632	Commencement of the conquest of Persia.	651	827	<i>Conquest of Sicily, except Syracuse,</i>	828
	Battle of Cadesia, 638.			Capture of Syracuse, 878.	
	Capture of Ctesiphon, 638.				
	Final conquest of Persia	651		Saracen settlements in Calabria.	

MOHAMMED.

A.D. 569 Mohammed, the Arabian prophet, was born of a princely line at Mecca. Naturally enthusiastic, superstitious, and addicted to the study of religious mysteries, he listened eagerly to the doctrines of the Jews, Christians and Persians, whom he met in the short excursions which he made for the purposes of trade in the neighbourhood. He embraced the sublime idea of the unity of the divine Spirit, rejected the idolatrous worship of his countrymen, and set about framing a new religion for them. At the age of forty he gave out that

he was inspired, the chosen minister of God on earth, and began to preach his religion. The labour of the first three years was not very encouraging—it produced him but fourteen converts, including the rich widow Cadijah, whom he had married, and his cousin Ali. Their numbers however increased, until, in 622, he had become sufficiently important to be driven from

Mecca by the Korish, the guardians of the old religion. This Hegira, or flight of Mahommed, is the year 1 of Mahometans. At Medina, he was received as a prince and prophet, and the ten years of his residence in that city were ten years of conquest. All Arabia was subdued, and Ishmael's roving

children then first acknowledged a single leader. He died at Medina.

The choice of his successor gave rise to the great schism which still survives in the hatred of the Persians and Turks. The former revere Ali as the vicar of God—the latter deny his right of succession. The Persians are denominated Scheyes, or Shiites, their enemies Sunnees, or Sonnites.

The good old Abubeker, father-in-law of Mohammed, in his short reign, began, through his general Kaled, the sword of God, that tremendous course of conquest which was destined to carry their victorious arms over a great part of the Eastern hemisphere. Thirty-six thousand cities and villages are said to have been subdued by Omar, and the first century of conquest placed Persia, Syria, Egypt, Africa, and Spain in the hands of the Saracens.

About the year 700 they overcame the Moors, or Berbers of Africa, who adopted the language and manners of their conquerors, and gradually became confounded with them. They passed over together to the conquest of Spain. Under the Ommiades Constantinople was twice besieged. In 668 the Saracens first approached it, and seven successive years brought immense armies for its destruction. They were repulsed by Greek fire. In 717 they made another unsuccessful attempt. Constantinople stood, its people were degenerate, but the place was strong, and its new and mysterious weapon of destruction carried terror before it. In both sieges the Saracen fleets were consumed.

Though Constantinople locked the door of Europe on the East, the Saracens had already entered it on the West, and crossing the Pyrenees, they desolated France to the Loire. Charles Martel proceeded cautiously, allowed them to grow careless and fancy themselves secure, and then coming upon them, he

shut them up in Bouillet in Poictou, and left more than 350,000 Saracens dead upon the field. Thus Charles Martel and Constantinople saved Europe from the Mohammedan yoke. Vast numbers of Saracens settled in the south of France.

750 The last of the Ommiades was slain, and Almansor, of the line of Abbas, laid the foundation of Bagdad, and made it the seat of government.

755 Abdurrahman, of the family of Ommiades, escaped to Spain, and established there an independent caliphate, which lasted more than two centuries.

781 We find Haroun Al Raschid reducing to obedience the poor Nicephorus, surrounded at Bagdad by luxury and splendour, patronizing science, literature and the arts, and adorning in his own character the golden era of the Saracen empire. He still reigned in 800.

A CHRONOLOGICAL INDEX

Of the most important Events, from the Birth of Christ to the Reign of Charlemagne.

1 Augustus had already reigned forty-one years; about ten
Birth of Christ. with Antony and thirty-one alone. He reigned until A.D.
Vulgar era 4004

- 14.** Christ actually born A. M. 4000, four years earlier.
- 50** Britain added to the Roman empire, fifty years *after* the birth of Christ, in the reign of Claudius. It was visited by Julius Cæsar fifty years before Christ, and finally conquered with great difficulty.
- 100** Actually 96. Nerva, first of the good emperors, who were successively adopted. Happy period for nearly one hundred years—except during the horrid reign of Commodus. After him anarchy till A. D. 193.
- 200** 193 Pertinax succeeds the dreadful Commodus. Pertinax killed by the pretorians, of whom Julian Didius buys the empire. Severus on the Danube, Albinus in Britain, Niger in Syria. Severus prevails, and disbands the pretorian guards, but establishes a new guard of a similar nature.
- 225** About this time Parthia changes to Persia, with a new Persian dynasty. The following interval is filled with the rapid succession of emperors—feeble, contemptible.
- 250** Thirty tyrants or usurpers. Empire in fragments. Franks in Belgium; Allemanni in Swabia; Visigoths and Ostrogoths, north of the Black Sea. These different hordes of savages pressed upon the different frontiers of the empire, often made irruptions, and kept the emperors and their provinces in constant alarm.
- 275** Aurelian dies this year—the conqueror of Zenobia and other usurpers. (Zenobia, queen of the East.) Claudian, Aurelian, and Probus had short reigns, but they did much towards saving the empire.
- 284** Diocletian and his imperial colleagues restore the empire, but Rome was no longer the capital. Diocletian lived at Nicomedia, Maximinian at Milan, Constantius in Britain.
- 300** Splendour and triumph of the imperial colleagues, who restored the empire to its unity, suppressed usurpers, repressed Franks, Allemanni, Goths, Persians, &c. Distinction of Augustus and Cæsar.

- 307 Constantine the Great succeeds his father in Britain; has many competitors, whom he overcomes, one after another, until he becomes sole emperor, in 325.
- 312 Constantine conquers his competitor and brother-in-law, Maxentius, and Rome and Italy submit to him.
- 325 Constantine having overcome all competitors, embraced Christianity; called the council of Nice to settle its doctrine, and began to build Constantinople.
- 327 Constantine dies, dividing his empire between his three sons; of whom Constantine reigned three years over Gaul, Spain, and Britain, and died in the war he made upon Constans in Italy. Constans reigned over Italy three years; over Italy, Gaul, and Britain, thirteen years, and died 350, leaving the whole empire to Constantius. These three brothers, from jealousy, put to death nearly all their relatives.
- 350 Constantius sole emperor after the death of both his brothers. He first made his cousin Gallus his colleague and Cæsar, but soon put him to death for his enormous vices.
- 355 Constantius makes his cousin Julian, Cæsar; sends him to Gaul against the Franks and Allemanni, who laid waste that province. Julian's great fame and success excites his envy.
- 360 Constantius sends for Julian's best legions; these refusing to leave Julian, proclaim him Augustus, and march against Constantius, who dies, and Julian is sole emperor. Julian dies in Parthia.
- Valentinian rules in the West, and Valens in the East. Valentinian succeeded by his son Gratian in the West.
- 375 The savage, deformed, hideous Huns, Tartars, from Asia, crossed the Wolga, entered Europe, routed the Alans and Ostrogoths, entangled themselves in the empire, and passed on to Hungary.
- In the mean time the terrified Visigoths fled to the Danube, got permission of Valens to settle in Mœsia and Thrace; rose in rebellion, killed Valens in the fatal battle of Adrianople; and were painfully repressed by Theodosius the Great, successor to Valens.
- 395 Theodosius divides the empire into *East* and *West*, and leaves both empires a prey to the Visigoths and Huns. Alaric, king of the Visigoths, ravages Greece.
- 400 On the entrance of Alaric into Italy with his Visigoths, Honorius fled from Milan to *Ravenna*, which became *the capital of the West*, on account of the security offered by the water on one side and impassable marshes on the other.

- 409 Burgundians settle in Switzerland and the east of Gaul. Vandals pass through Gaul into Spain, after which the feeble Romans have but little authority in Spain.
- 413-14-15 Alaric sacks Rome after three sieges. Dies in the south of Italy, and his Visigoths follow a new leader into Gaul; where they founded a Visigothic kingdom.
- 425 Honorius dies; his sister, Placidia, reigns as regent for her son, Valentinian 3d.
- 429 Vandals under Genseric, invited by Count Boniface, pass into Africa, and subduing that Roman province, establish a Vandal kingdom. The Britons, abandoned by the Romans and restored to independence, were unable to defend themselves against the Picts and Scots.
- 449 Saxons begin to settle in Britain.
- 450 Attila, king of the Huns, lays waste Gaul and the north of *Italy*, after he was defeated at *Chalons*. Venice built in the sea by those who fled from Attila. Theodosius 2d dies.
- 455 Death of Valentinian 3d; whose widow, Eudoxia, married his murderer, Maximus, who succeeded: but, on discovering the murder, she invited Genseric from Africa, who sacked Rome fourteen days, and carried off plunder, Eudoxia and all, into Africa.
- 476 *Odoacer*, king of the savage Heruli, conquers Italy, deposes Augustulus, the last feeble emperor. Odoacer sends the imperial ornaments, as so many bagatelles, to Constantinople, and takes the title of king of Italy, instead of preserving the vain title of emperor, when all the provinces were severed from the empire by other rude savages. This year (476) is called the end of the Western Roman Empire. As an empire, it had been rent and reduced before, by Burgundians, Vandals, Visigoths, Saxons, &c.
- 481 to 500 During this period the Franks under Clovis pushed from Belgium into Gaul, and vanquished the Burgundians and Visigoths. The Ostrogoths, who were disentangled from the Hunnish empire on the death of Attila, enter Italy, after menacing Constantinople; conquered Odoacer, and Theodosius their king became king of Italy, 493.
- 500 The end of the Western Roman Empire is dated 476, (see above,) and was in fact rent to pieces before that period; yet the barbarians did not become settled and quiet in their respective provinces until about this date, 500; but now the Franks are spread over Gaul. The Visigoths retiring before the conquering Franks, settle in Spain; the Vandals have passed into Africa, 429. The Ostrogoths were established in Italy since 493, under the Great Theodoric. The

Saxons are making great progress in Britain; and thus the wreck of the Great Western Empire is divided among savages: but New Rome, or Constantinople, will long resist the dreadful shock.

- 525 About this time the Great Theodoric dies in Italy, and leaves his kingdom in the feeble hands of his daughter and her minor son. Justinian began to reign, at Constantinople, 527: a man who had the discernment and wisdom to select the best men to conduct every department of his affairs.
- 535 About this time Belisarius, the general of Justinian, subdued the Vandals, and added Africa to the Eastern Empire; then invaded Sicily and Italy; and, after prodigies of valour, subdued the Ostrogoths, and added Italy to the Eastern Empire; which, however, was not wholly completed until 550.
- 550 By this time all farther resistance of the Ostrogoths to Justinian becomes vain: Italy and Africa belongs to him. *Turkish Pagan* Empire begins east of the Caspian. No Mohammedans yet. These Pagan Turks east of the Caspian, in the interior of Asia, these Scythians or Tartars, long after, become Mohammedans, and overrun the west of Asia, &c., not until after A. D. 1000.
- 568 Justinian dies. Lombards rush into Italy from Pannonia, conquer the North and middle, leaving Ravenna, Ancona and the east coast, Rome, Naples and the west coast, to the Eastern emperors, until about 750. The relative position of the Lombards and Eastern emperors was always perplexing, and finally led to great events from 725 to 750. The emperors had exarchs, that is out-rulers residing at Ravenna, which was then called the Exarchate.
- 581 About this time the language of Italy undergoes a change. The barbarous tongues of the several nations who had overrun Italy, Heruli, Ostrogoths, Lombards, had corrupted and confounded the Latin.
- 600 The Heptarchy now completed. Gregory 1st, or Great, (who began his pontificate 590,) sends St. Augustine and others to convert the pagan Saxons. Under this pope the papal jurisdiction was also extended over the Arian Visigoths and Lombards, who were all converted to the catholic faith.
- 601 Mohammed begins to preach at Mecca. Heraclius begins to reign at Constantinople. Chosroes, king of Persia, conquers Syria, Palestine, Asia Minor, a part of Egypt, &c.
- 622 Hegira, or flight of Mohammed from Mecca to Medina. Mohammed a prince, a prophet; returns, converts his relatives and friends in Mecca at the sword's point, and conquers Arabia. From this time, and not before, we call the Ara-

- biens Saracens, which of course applies only to Arabians from the time of Mohammed.
- 632 Mohammed died, but his successors soon conquered Palestine and Syria from the Eastern emperors—at the same time with other armies conquered Persia.
- 650 By about this time the Saracens, that is, the *Arabian Mohammedan empire*, extended to Media in the East, and five years after to Egypt. Amrou conquered Egypt and burned the famous Alexandrian library, founded by the Ptolemies. After the conquest of Egypt, the Saracens push on gradually through Africa, until about 700, by which time it is all conquered.
- 665 Damascus becomes the seat of the caliphs instead of Medina. *Ommiyades* caliphs resigned at Damascus, that is caliphs descended from a man named Ommyah. The Saracens still prosecute their war in Africa against the Eastern Emperors.
- 675 Saracens besieged Constantinople, which was saved by *Greek fire*. The Saracens never succeeded in passing into Europe by Constantinople, though they long attempted it.
- 700 From 632 to 700, the Saracens had conquered from the Eastern emperors, or emperors of Constantinople, parts of Asia Minor and the whole coast of Africa.
- 712 Saracens, under the name of Moors, which means Saracens from Morocco, conquer Spain. Thus the Saracens entered Europe from Morocco. A handful of Christian Visigoths in Asturias.
- 717 Saracens a second time unsuccessfully besiege Constantinople. The few Christians saved in Asturias resist the Saracens of Spain, and gradually increase at the expense of the Saracens. The Saracens were not all driven out till after 800 years. They were driven out of Grenada by Ferdinand 1500.
- 725 About this time, the Isaurian family, reigning at Constantinople, became zealous *Iconoclasts*, or *Image-breakers*. They could execute their edicts at Constantinople, but not in Italy. All this time the war is about images. The Eastern emperors were determined to enforce their edicts in Italy, and the popes and Italians determined to resist. The Lombards took advantage of the quarrel, and twice took Ravenna and threatened Rome, in which case the popes or bishops of Rome had recourse to the Franks, first Charles Martel and then Pepin, who said "anoint me king."
- 732 Charles Martel defeats the Saracens and drives them out of France, and saves Europe from the darkness of Mohammedanism.

- 750 Bagdad the Saracen capital instead of Damascus. Abbassades caliphs. Spain separated under a branch of Ommyades. *Pepin, Popes, Bagdad.* Pepin 1st, Carlovingian. Popes become temporal princes. The Abbassades caliphs, (that is descended from Abbas, uncle of Mahomet,) at Bagdad introduced their splendour, learning, &c. Pepin made popes princes. Popes anointed Pepin.
- 768 Charlemagne became king of France by the death of his father Pepin.
- 774 Charlemagne conquers the Lombards in Italy, and in the mean while prosecutes his ambitious wars and superstitious conquests in Germany against the pagan Saxons, whom he conquered and converted in thirty cruel campaigns. His wars with them lasted till 800. In the mean time Charlemagne also conquered Spain to the Ebro.
- 800 Charlemagne crowned emperor of the West at Rome, with the title of *Charles Augustus Caesar*. Papal oil and sanctions fruitful of future quarrels. The conquest and final crowning of Charlemagne is called the *Restoration of the Western Roman Empire*. It did not, however, include *Britain, Africa*, nor all Spain. It must be called the *Frank Western Roman Empire*, which soon crumbled to pieces under the feeble successors of Charlemagne.

History of Spain, Gaul, Italy, after the time of Charlemagne.

SPAIN.

Visigoths. Spain was (A.D. 500) overrun by the savage Visigoths, Vandals, &c., tribes from Germany, while the other provinces of the west shared a similar fate.

Saracens or Moors subdue Spain, and are not entirely expelled or subdued till the time of Ferdinand & Isabella, A.D. 1500. Spain united enlarges into an empire. The Saracens, or Moors, subdued the Christian Visigoths, A.D. 711, who did not recover the whole country till the time of Ferdinand and Isabella, after a sanguinary struggle of nearly 800 years. The marriage of Ferdinand and Isabella, and their conquest, united all Spain into one monarchy, to which America, Naples, Sicily, &c., were soon added.

Charles V. & his Austrian successors till 1700. This great inheritance passed, 1516, to the Austrian Charles V., which was the means of adding Netherlands, Milan, &c., to this swelling empire, which, under Charles and his Austrian successors, formed one of the great states of Europe till 1700, when the chief part of these vast possessions passed to the French Bourbons, while the rest reverted to

French Bourbons
Austria.

GAUL.

Feudal System. In the age of the Carlovingians, from about 800 to 1000, A.D., France was generally parcelled out among dukes, who acquired *direct* and absolute control over the people in their respective dukedoms; while one of them bore the title of king of France, with a certain acknowledged supremacy over the others; but with no *direct* control over the people, except in his own *ducal* dominions. This king looked to the other dukes for homage and military service, and the dukes looked to the people for the same. This was called the *feudal system*, and under various modifications generally prevailed in Europe. It grew out of confusion, accident, favoritism, usurpation, &c.

It was a system of weakness and distraction, opening to artful princes and popes the means of humbling a rival, by arraying against him his own rebellious dukes and vassals. The king was often braved by his dependent dukes, and the duke, by having a *direct* control over his people and revenues, was often more powerful than the king.

As most of the dukedoms could be inherited by females, it often happened that an heiress transferred her inheritance by marriage to a foreign and rival sovereign. In this way the Norman and Plantagenet kings of England became *vassals* to the kings of France, and *dukes* of all the provinces from the Channel to the Pyrenees. Though these acquisitions placed them in the *legal* relation of vassals to the kings of France, yet as these dukes or vassals had the direct control over the people and the revenues, the feudal relation was merely nominal.

Gradual annexation of the Dukedoms to the crown Yet the kings of France took advantage of the absence and occasional weakness of the kings of England, and conquered all their possessions in France, one after another. And *finally*, though *slowly*, by marriage, conquest, purchase, exchange, &c., the kings got all the French dukedoms an-

nexed to the crown by 1735. Even as early as 1500, (Charles VIII., Louis XII., Francis I.,) so many provinces had been gained as to give France a new rank among the states of Europe. From the time of Francis the First, France was able to make a great struggle against the two houses of Austria, (German and Spanish branches; see Spain,) till 1700, when Spain and its appendages, after a bloody contest, passed from the Austrians to the French Bourbons, whose branches were multiplied also in Naples, Sicily, and Parma.

Bourbons.

Even before this multiplication of Bourbon branches, Henry IV., Louis XIII. and XIV., had very much influenced the destinies of Europe. Louis XIV. had domineered over the world for forty years, and the Austrians had ceased to be terrible before the Spanish branch became extinct; and the Bourbon enterprises provoked continual fears and wars, till they were humbled in the long and universal wars concluded by the peace of Paris, 1763. The declining race was swept by the storm of the French revolution.

Napoleon, by a selfish and rigid despotism, arrested the horrors of that revolution, and by his unparalleled success in arms, swelled France into a mighty empire. The idolatry of the world, and presumption of Napoleon, led him to ruin; and we see the Bourbons creeping out of their hiding places, only to demonstrate that they are incapable of profiting by the lessons of adversity and experience.

ITALY.

At last, A.D. 912, when the German Carlovingian branch became extinct, the German princes established an *elective* chief, called king or emperor of Germany. They commonly elected one of their own number, (though sometimes a foreign prince,) and the office always continued strictly elective, even when it passed several generations from father to son, as it did in the ducal lines of Franconia, Saxony, Swabia, and Austria. In 960, Otho the Great, the third elective emperor of Germany, conquered Italy, and was *crowned and anointed Roman emperor*, with the usual title of Augustus, &c. Though in this manner he became acknowledged lord of Italy and the pope, yet this old ceremony of *crowning* and *anointing*, laid the foundation of those conflicting pretensions that kept Italy, Germany, and Europe so long embroiled. The spiritual thunders of the popes prevailed at least as often as the carnal weapons of the emperors, who generally found one half their own princes arrayed against them in any conflict with a pope. This ghostly power over the minds of men, was first arrested about 1500, by the Protestant Reformation, and the strong arm of the emperor Charles V., who was as much an enemy to the *political* pretensions of the pope, as he was to the religious reformation of the people.

Circumstances that always restrained the papal power.

During the Crusades, (see table for the East,) we see the popes (1100—1270) setting Christendom in holy commotion, and directing to their own profit the wild enterprises of fanaticism. The artful and uniform system of encroachment pursued by a long succession of popes, is worthy of our philosophic curiosity. But their authority was impaired particularly

in Rome itself, by rival ambition, by competitors, and anti-popes—by their shameless profligacy, and by seditions. They overwhelmed many princes, but princes sometimes defied, and overwhelmed popes. Sometimes *two*, and even *three* popes divided Christendom, and their own councils long questioned their supreme authority. Several attempts were made to subvert or restrain their temporal power at Rome, particularly by Arnold of Brescia, who governed Rome ten years, 1140, and by Nicholas Rienza, who was near becoming the sovereign of Italy, 1347, (while the pope was at Avignon.) Even when distant princes trembled at his name, the pope often had to seek refuge in the neighbouring cities from an enraged people. By the influence of the French kings and cardinals, the popes resided seventy years at Avignon in France, and their return to Rome resulted in the famous schism of the west, 1377—1414. It was not till after their spiritual power came to a stand, 1500, that they began to enjoy a settled authority over their own capital.

Crumbling period of the Saracen Empire.

A.D.750 Spain was cut off from the empire. Its caliph was Abdurrahman; its capital Cordova.

850 Morocco was cut off under a caliph named Mervanold, meaning "Commander of the Faithful." About the same time Algiers, Tunis, Tripoli, and Egypt, were severed under their respective caliphs.

970 Egypt, under caliphs called Fatimites, from Fatima the daughter of Mahomet, conquered the Holy Land and Syria. Persia and India were next lopped off, where there was a succession of barbarous dynasties, till at last the caliph of Bagdad was a miserable phantom, dressed in priestly robes, retaining the grandeur of his palace and person.

933 The Bowides stripped the caliph Rhadi of his temporal power, and left him a mere priest. The Turks took the

1055 temporal power.

Historical sketch of the Turkish or Tartar Mahommedan Empire.

This empire may be divided into *four periods*, viz.

1st Period.—The pagan period of the Turks, extending from about 550 to about 850, 300 years, during which time they resided in the deserts of Scythia, in the centre of Asia.

2d Period.—Their gradual conversion to the Mahommedan faith, extending from 850 to 1050, when they began to move, a period of 200 years.

3d Period.—The period of their conquests, from 1050 to 1453, a period of 403 years.

4th Period.—The period of the Turkish Mahommedan empire in Europe and the wars of Asia, from 1453 to the present time, 385 years.

1025 Turks begin to move west, and finding the Arabian empire crumbling to pieces, they overrun Persia, take Bagdad, and deprive the caliph of his authority as a prince, but respect him as a priest.

The Seljukian Turks, or Turks descended from Seljuk, had three great leaders, Togrulbeg, Alparslem, and Malek Shah.

1075 They take the holy city from the Fatamite caliphs of Egypt, (who took it in 960) while another tribe, under Solyman, conquers Asia Minor and threatens Constantinople. The Turks, notwithstanding their great prowess and power, will be 400 years taking Constantinople. Why so long? Because they were three times broken up, and three times rallied again.

1100 *Broken up*—1st, by the Crusaders, but rallied again.

1200 “ “ 2d, by a new invasion of Tartars under Genghis Khan, but rallied again in Asia Minor, under Othman.

1400 “ “ 3d, by a third inundation of Tartars under Tamerlane.

Table of the Kings of England.

KINGS OF THE SAXON MONARCHY,

From 823 to 1066—233 years.

A. D. 828	800	<i>Egbert.</i> Ethelwolf. Ethelbald. Ethelbert. Ethelred. Alfred. —
	A. D. 900	<i>Edward</i> , the Elder. (Athelstan.) Edmund. Edred. Edwy. Edgar. Edward the Martyr.—
	A. D. 1000	<i>Ethelred 2d.</i> Edmund Ironside.— Three Danish Kings,
	1000	<i>Canute</i> , Harold, and Hardicanute. Edward the Confessor. Harold.—

The whole period of the Saxon monarchy was distinguished by the incursions of a people *they* called Danes, but called by the French Normans. England conquered by the Normans 1066.

NORMAN FAMILY.

From 1066 to 1154—88 years.

	William, Conqueror.	1066—1087	reigned 21 years.
	William Rufus.	1087—1100	13
A. D. 1100	<i>Henry</i> 1st.	1100—1135	35
	Stephen.	1135—1154	19

PLANTAGENET.

From 1154 to 1399—245 years.

	Henry 2d.	1154—1189	reigned 35 years.
	Richard 1st.	1189—1199	10
A. D. 1200	<i>John</i> .	1199—1216	17
	Henry 3d.	1216—1272	56
A. D. 1300	<i>Edward</i> 1st.	1272—1307	35
	Edward 2d.	1307—1327	20
	Edward 3d.	1327—1377	50
	Richard 2d.	1377—1399	22

LANCASTER.

From 1399 to 1471 (Lewis 14th)—72 years.

A. D. 1400	<i>Henry</i> 4th.	1399—1413	reigned 14 years.
	Henry 5th.	1413—1422	9
	Henry 6th.	1422—1471	49

YORK.

From 1471 to 1485—14 years.

	Edward 4th.	1471—1483	reigned 12 years.
	Edward 5th	was only crowned.	
	Richard 3d.	1483—1485	2

TUDOR.

From 1485 to 1603—118 years. (Punic Wars.)

A. D. 1500	<i>Henry</i> 7th.	1485—1509	reigned 24 years.
	Henry 8th and 3 children.	1509—1547	38
	Edward 6th.	1547—1553	6
	Mary.	1553—1558	5
	Elizabeth.	1558—1603	45

STEWART.

From 1603 to 1714.—111 years. (Cromwell off 100.)

A. D. 1600	<i>James</i> 1st.	1603—1625	reigned 22 years.
	Charles 1st.	1625—1649	24
	Cromwell.	1649—1660	11
	Charles 2d.	1660—1685	25
	James 2d.	1685—1688	3
A. D. 1700	<i>William and Mary</i> .	1688—1702	14
	Anne.	1702—1714	12

BRUNSWICK.

From 1714 to 1838—124 years.

	George 1st.	1714—1727	reigned 13 years.
	George 2d.	1727—1760	33
A. D. 1800	George 3d.	1760—1820	60
	George 4th.	1820—1830	10
	William 4th.	1830—1837	7
	Victoria.	1837—	

Table of the Kings of France.

The *Merovingian* Kings, or race of CLOVIS, (the Conqueror of Gaul,)
reigned 250 years.

CARLOVINGIAN.

From 752 to 987—235 years.

	Pepin,	752—768	reigned 16 years.
A. D. 800	Charles 1st.—	768—814	46
	Louis 1st	814—840	26
	Charles 2d.—	840—876	36
	Louis 2d	876—879	3
	Louis 3d.—	879—884	5
	Charles 3d	884—888	4
	Eudes	888—898	10
A. D. 900	Charles the Simple—	898—922	24
	Robert	922—923	1
	Ralpho.—	923—936	13
	Louis 4th	936—954	18
	Lothaire	954—986	32
	Louis 5th	986—987	1

CAPETIAN. (Eldest Branch.)

From 987 to 1323—341 years.

A. D. 1000	Hugh Capet	987—996	reigned 9 years.
	Robert 2d.	996—1031	35
	Henry.—	1031—1060	29
A. D. 1100	Philip 1st.	1068—1108	48
	Louis 6th.	1108—1137	29
	Louis 7th.—	1137—1180	43
A. D. 1200	Philip 2d.	1180—1223	43
	Louis 8th.	1223—1226	3
	Louis 9th.—	1226—1270	44
	Philip 3d.	1270—1285	15
A. D. 1300	Philip 4th.	1285—1315	30
	Louis 10th.—	1315—1316	1
	Philip 5th.	1316—1322	6
	Charles 4th.	1322—1328	6

VALOIS, (Capetian.)

From 1328 to 1498—170 years.

	Philip 6th.—	1328---1350	reigned 22 years.
	John the Good.	1350---1364	14
	Charles 5th.	1364---1380	16
A. D. 1400	<i>Charles</i> 6th.	1380---1422	42
	Charles 7th.	1422---1461	39
	Louis 11th.—	1461---1483	22
	Charles 8th.	1483---1498	15

ANGOULÊME—Branch of Valois Capetian.

From 1498 to 1589—191 years.

A. D. 1500	Louis 12th. (Orleans.)	1498---1515	reigned 17 years.
	Francis 1st.—	1515---1547	32
	Henry 2d.	1547---1559	12
	Francis 2d.	1559---1560	1
	Charles 9th.	1560---1574	14
	Henry 3d.	1574---1589	15

BOURBON, (Capetian.)

From 1589 to 1838—249 years. Revolution, and Napoleon off, 226 years.

A. D. 1600	Henry 4th.	1589---1610	reigned 21 years.
	Louis 13th.	1610---1643	33
	Louis 14th.	1643---1715	72
	Louis 15th.	1715---1774	59
	Louis 16th.	1774---1792	18
	French Revolution	1792---1799	7
A. D. 1800	<i>Napoleon's</i> career	1799---1814	16
1814	<i>Louis</i> 18th.	1814---1824	
	Charles 10th.	1824---1830	
	Louis Philip	1830.	

Emperors of Germany.

HEREDITARY EMPERORS.

From 800 to 912—112 years.

A. M. 800	<i>Charlemagne.</i>	800---814	reigned 14 years.
	Louis 1st.—	814---840	26
	Lothaire 1st.	840---855	15
	Louis 2d.—	855---875	20
	Charles 2d.	875---880	5
	Charles 3d.—	880---888	8
	Arnold	888---900	12
A. D. 900	<i>Louis</i> —	900---912	12

ELECTIVE EMPERORS.

Begin A.D. 912.

1st Class.

Franconia,	Conrad 1st.	912---918	reigned 6 years.
Saxony,	Henry 1st.	918---936	18
	Otho 1st.	936---972	36
	Otho 2d.	972---982	10
A. D. 1000	<i>Otho</i> 3d.	982---1002	20
Bavaria,	Henry 2d.—	1002---1024	22

2d Class.

Franconia,	Conrad 2d.	1024—1040	reigned 16 years.
	Henry 3d.	1040—1056	16
A. D. 1100	<i>Henry</i> 4th.	1056—1106	50
	Henry 5th.	1106—1125	19
Saxony,	Lothaire 2d.	1125—1138	13

3d Class.

Swabia and	Conrad 3d.	1138—1152	reigned 14 years.
Franconia	Frederick 1st.—	1152—1190	38
united.	Henry 6th.	1190—1198	8
A.D. 1200.	<i>Philip</i> .	1198—1208	10
Brunswick	Otho 4th.	1208—1212	4
Swabia and	Frederick 2d.	1212—1250	38
Franconia,	Conrad 4th.	1250—1254	4

4th Class.

(FOREIGN EMPERORS.)

Holland,	William,	1250—1256	reigned 6 years.
England,	Richard, {	1256—1273	17
Castile,	Alphonzo, }		

5th Class.

HAPSBURG AUSTRIANS.

Begin A.D. 1273.

Hapsburg,	Rodolph 1st.	1273—1291	reigned 18 years.
Nassau,	Adolphus,	1291—1298	7
1300 Hapsburg,	<i>Albert</i> 1st.	1298—1308	10
Luxemburgh,	Henry 7th.	1308—1314	6
Hapsburg,	Frederick 3d.	{ Elected by different parties. }	{ 1314—1347 33
Bavaria,	and Louis,		

6th Class.

LUXEMBURGERS.

Luxemburg,	Charles 4th.	1347—1378	reigned 31 years.
	Wenceslaus,	1378—1400	22
1400 Bavaria,	<i>Robert</i> ,	1400—1410	10
Hungary,	Sigmund,	1410—1438	28

HOUSE OF AUSTRIA.

From 1438 to 1745—307 years.

	Albert 2d.	1438—1440	reigned 2 years.
	Frederick,	1440—1493	53
A. D. 1500	<i>Maximilian 1st.</i> —	1493—1519	26
	Charles 5th.	1519—1558	39
	Ferdinand 1st.	1558—1564	6
	Maximilian 2d.—	1564—1576	12
A. D. 1600	<i>Rodolph 2d.</i>	1576—1612	36
	Matthias —	1612—1619	7
	Ferdinand 2d.	1619—1637	18
	Ferdinand 3d.	1637—1658	21
A. D. 1700	Leopold 1st.	1658—1705	47
	Joseph,	1705—1711	6
	Charles 6th.—	1711—1741	30
Bavaria,	Charles 7th.—	1741—1745	4

LORRAINE.

From 1745 to 1838—73 years

	Francis 1st.	1745—1765	reigned 20 years.
	Joseph 2d.	1765—1790	25
	Leopold,	1790—1792	2
A. D. 1800	<i>Francis 2d, 1792, became first Emperor of Austria 1802.</i>		

Kings of Spain.

After the union of *Arragon* and *Castile*, by the marriage of *Ferdinand* and *Isabella*.

AUSTRIAN—1520.

Charles 5th, or 1st.
Philip 2d.
Philip 3d.
Philip 4th.
Charles 2d.

BOURBON—1700.

Philip 5th.
Ferdinand 6th.
Charles 3d.
Charles 4th.
Ferdinand 7th.

Kings of Russia, from 1700.

Peter the Great.
Catherine.
Peter —
Anne.
Ivan —

Peter.
Catherine.
Paul.—
Alexander.
Nicholas.—

*Centurial Monarchs of England, France, and
Germany.*

KINGS OF ENGLAND.

800	Egbert, 1st Saxon Monarch.
900	Edward the Elder, 1st Saxon Edward.
1000	(Edward) Canute, 1st Danish Monarch.
1100	Henry <i>First</i> .
1200	Richard <i>First</i> .
1300	Edward <i>First</i> .
1400	Henry. 1st Lancaster.
1500	Henry 7th. First Tudor.
1600	James 1st. First Stewart.
1700	William 3d.
1800	George 3d.

KINGS OF FRANCE.

800	Charlemagne.
900	Charles the Simple.
1000	Hugh Capet.
1100	Philip 1st.
1200	Philip 2d.
1300	Philip 4th.
1400	Charles, middle Valois.
1500	Louis 12th. middle invader of Italy.
1600	Henry 4th. 1st Bourbon.
1700	Louis 14th.
1800	Louis 18th and Napoleon.

EMPERORS OF GERMANY.

Charlemagne.
Conrad 1st. first elective Emperor.
Henry 2d. first Bavarian.
Henry 5th. last Franconian.
Philip <i>First</i> .
Albert 1st.
Robert <i>First</i> .
Maximilian 1st.
Rodolph 2d.
Leopold 1st.
Francis 2d.

APPENDIX.

Important Events of Ancient History, in which we find a coincidence of dates.

A.M.	B.C.		
2000	2000	Sacred History begins with Abraham,	{ 1500 years apart.
3500	500	Profane History,	
2250	750	Jacob's children sojourning in Canaan,	{ 1500 years apart.
3750	250	Punic Wars,	
2500	1500	Moses,	{ 1500 years apart.
4000		Birth of Christ,	
2083	1917	Abraham, aged 75, crossed the Eu-	{ 1200 years apart.
		phrates into the Promised Land,	
3283	717	Abraham's descendants carried cap-	{ 1200 years apart.
		tive by the Assyrians over the same	
		river,	
2298	1702	Jacob removes into Egypt,	{ 1100 years apart.
3398	602	Daniel and many Jews taken captive	
		by the Babylonians,	
2500	1500	Moses,	{ 1000 years apart.
3500	500	Herodotus,	
1656	2344	Flood,	{ 427 years apart.
2083	1917	Calling,	
2083	1917	Calling,	{ 470 years apart.
2553	1447	Conquest of Canaan,	
2553	1447	Conquest of Canaan,	{ 476 years apart.
3029	971	Dismemberment of the kingdom of	
		Israel,	
3029	971	Dismemberment,	{ 471 years apart.
3500	500	Close of sacred history,	
3500	500	Close of sacred history,	{ 439 years apart.
3939	61	Final subjection of the Jews to the	
		Romans,	

Periods occupying a century.

A.M.		
3456 to 3555		Struggle between the Greeks and Persians.
3555	3650	Struggle among the Greek states for supremacy.
3650	3750	Macedonian career.
3750	3858	Roman career of conquest.
3858	3973	Period of Roman internal convulsions.

Tables of Ancient Kings.

For repeating and committing the names of kings, they are divided into portions indicated by a dash at the end of each portion.

KINGS OF TROY.			KINGS OF MACEDON.		
A.M.		B.C.	A.M.		B.C.
2380	Scamander, Teucer, Dardanus, Erichthonius, Tros, Ilus, Laomedon,	1620	3200	Ceraunus, Alexander,— Perdiccas, Archelaus,— Philip, Amyntas,— Philip, Alexander,—	800
2780	Priam. —	1220	<i>Empire divided.</i> Cassander and his three sons, Philip, Antipater, Alexander,— Demetrius Poliorcetes, Lysimachus & Pyrrhus, Lysimachus alone, conquered by Seleucus, conquered by Ptolemy Ceraunus, dethroned by Gauls, Antigonus, son of Demetrius Poliorcetes, Demetrius, Antigonus, Philip,		
KINGS OF ASSYRIA.			3836	Perseus. —	164
3279	Pul, Sardanapalus,— Tiglath-Pileser, Shalmanezar,— Sennacherib, Esarhaddon,— Nebuchadnezzar, Saracus.—	721	KINGS OF ROME.		
KINGS OF BABYLON.			3250	Romulus, Numa Pompilius, Tullus Hostilius,— Ancus Marcius,— Tarquin 1st, Servius Tullius,	750
3466	Nabonassar, Merodach Baladin,— Nabopolassar,— Nebuchadnezzar,— Evil Merodach, Belshazzar.—	534	3500	Tarquin the Proud.—	500
KINGS OF PERSIA.			KINGS OF LYDIA.		
3673	Arbaces, Dejoces, Phraortes,— Cyaxares 1st, Astyages, Cyaxares 2d,— Cyrus, Cambyses, Darius 1st, Xerxes, Artaxerxes 1st, Darius 2d,— Artaxerxes 2d, Artaxerxes 3d, Darius 3d.—	327	3456	Candaules, Gyges, Ardys,— Sadyattes, Halyattes, Cræsus.—	544

KINGS OF SYRIA.

A.M.		B.C.
3973	Seleucus Nicator,	427
Important Kings.	Antiochus Soter,	
	Antiochus Theos,	
	Seleucus Callinicus,	
	Seleucus Ceraunus,	
	Antiochus the Great,	
	Seleucus Philopater,	
	Antiochus Epiphanes,	
	Antiochus Eupator,	
	Demetrius Soter,	
	Alexander Balus,	
	Demetrius Nicator,	
	Antiochus Theos,	
	Diodotus Tryphon,	
	Antiochus Sidetes,	
	Alexander Zebina,	
	Antiochus Grypus,	
	Antiochus of Cyzicus,	
	Seleucus,	
	Antiochus Eusebes,	
	Antiochus 11th,	
	Philip,	

A.M.		B.C.
	Demetrius Eucærus,	
	Antiochus Dionysius,	
	Tigranes, king of Ar-	
	menia,	
3939	Antiochus Asiaticus.	61

PTOLEMYS OF EGYPT.

A.M.		B.C.
3673	Ptolemy Lagus,	427
Important Kings.	Ptolemy Philadelphus,	
	Ptolemy Evergetes,	
	Ptolemy Philopater,	
	Ptolemy Epiphanes,	
	Ptolemy Philometer,	
	Ptolemy Physcon,	
	Ptolemy Lathyrus,	
	Ptolemy Alexander 1st,	
	Cleopatra,	
	Ptolemy Alexander 2d,	
	Ptolemy Auletes,	
	Berenice,	
	Ptolemy & Cleopatra,	
3973	Cleopatra conquered.	27

*Roman Emperors.*1st Class—*Julian Family.*

Julius Cæsar, (Dictator,)
 Augustus "
 Tiberius "
 Caligula "
 Claudius "
 Nero "

Marcus Aurelius Antoninus,
 Commodus belongs to the
 family of the Antonines, but
 did not inherit their cha-
 racter.

2d Class—*Scattered Emperors, &
all crowned in the same year.*

Galba,
 Otho,
 Vitellius.

5th Class—*Five Emperors crown-
ed in one year.*

Pertinax, at Rome,
 Julian Didius, at Rome,
 Severus, on the Danube,
 Niger, in the East,
 Albinus, in the West.

3d Class—*Flavian Family.*

Vespasian,
 Titus,
 Domitian.

6th Class—*Family of Severus.*

Severus,
 Caracalla,
 Geta,
 Macrinus,
 Alexander Severus.

4th Class—*Five good Emperors.*

Nerva,
 Trajan,
 Adrian,
 Antoninus Pius,

7th Class—*Maximinus and his
competitors.*

Maximinus,

Gordian,
Gordian,
Maximus,
Balbinus,
Gordian.

8th Class—*Those under whom the Empire fell to pieces.*

Philip,
Decius,
Æmilianus,
Gallus,
Valerian,
Gallienus.

These are little more than emperors in Italy, acknowledged by the senate.

9th Class—*1st Class of Imperial Restorers.*

Claudius,
Aurelian,
Tacitus,
Probus,
Carus.

These did not reign long enough to complete their work.

10th Class—*2d Class of Restorers, or Imperial Colleagues and Cæsars.*

DIOCLETIAN, Eastern Augustus,
Galerius his Cæsar.
MAXIMIAN, Western Augustus,
Constantius his Cæsar.

11th Class—*Constantine and his rivals.*

Severus,
Maximian,
Maxentius,
Galerius,

Maximinus,
Licinius,
Constantine victorious.

12th Class—*Constantine the Great & his three sons.*
Constantine—in the W.
Canstans—in the middle,
Constantius—in the E.
Julian—sole emperor.

13th Class—*Valentinian Family.*
Valentinian—middle & W.
Valens, E.
Valentinian 2d,
Gratian.

14th Class—*Theodosian Family.*
Theodosius the Great, sole emperor,
Honorius in the E.
Arcadius in the W.
After this the empire goes rapidly to destruction.

15th Class—*Nobodies*, of whom Romulus Augustulus, 476, is the last.

A.D. 100 Trajan.
200 Severus.
300 Constantine.
400 Theodosius' death—
empire divided.
500 Settlement of the Barbarians.
600 Gregory the Great, St. Augustine and Mahomet.
700 Africa and Spain conquered by the Saracens.
800 Charlemagne attempts to restore the Western Roman empire.

A.D. 1 In the reign of Augustus the empire firm and unbroken.
250 Broken in fragments. Thirty tyrants or usurpers. Franks and Allemanni on the Rhine, Ostrogoths and Visigoths north of the Black Sea, ready to pour down upon the empire.
500 The Western empire completely occupied by German savages.
750 *Pepin. Popes and Bagdad.*
Pepin, the founder of the Franks, or Clovingian empire. *Popes* become temporal princes.
Bagdad the seat of the Saracen empire then in all its splendour.

SCHOOLS OF PHILOSOPHY.

FIRST PERIOD.—FROM THALES TO SOCRATES.

Ionic, Pythagoric, Eleatic, Atomic Schools.

IONIC SCHOOL,

Founded by Thales of Miletus, 600 B.C. He was the first who discussed on principles of reason the origin of the world. *Water* was, in his opinion, the original element and *spirit*, the impulsive principle. His great moral maxim was *Know thyself*.

Anaximander, who flourished at Miletus about 610 B.C., taught that the *Infinite* and the *Divine* were the primary elements. It is not, however, decided whether by the *Divine* he understood an essence distinct from the elements, or a subtle quality intermediate between water and air.

Pherecydes of Syros, his contemporary, though his junior, taught the same doctrine in the main; he recognized, however, as the principle of all things, *Jupiter* or *Ether*, Time and the earth. He appears to have believed in the immortality of the soul. Anaximander and Pherecydes were the first who committed their doctrines to writing.

Anaximenes of Miletus flourished about 557 B.C. He was the disciple of Anaximander, but limited the *Infinite* of his master as the primitive element to the *Air*, from certain observations on the origin of things and the nature of the soul.

Hermotimus, of Clazomenæ, is said to have held the doctrine of a *Superior Intelligence* as the author of nature.

Anaxagoras, born at Clazomenæ, 500 B.C. The great dogma of this philosopher was of an intellectual principle, from the inadequacy of those systems which recognized only material causes. He acknowledged the existence of primeval chaos, which he believed to be surrounded by *air* and *ether*, and to have been put in motion by the *Intelligent Principle*. This intelligence he considered the active and creative cause, endowed with spontaneous energy, but refined from all matter, pervading, defining, and limiting all things, and consequently the PRINCIPLE OF LIFE. In his forty-fifth year he settled himself at Athens, where he became the master and the friend of Pericles. His doctrines, however, exposed him to the charge of atheism, in consequence of which he was obliged to flee from that city, and retire to Lampsacus, where he ended his days.

Diogenes, of Apollonia in Crete, the disciple of Anaximenes, taught after that philosopher that the fundamental principle was *air*, but blended with it the great dogma of Anaxagoras, by imputing to it an *Intellectual Energy*. He flourished about 472 B.C.

Archelaus, the Milesian, about 460 B.C., a disciple of Anaxagoras, and resident at Athens, taught that all things were evolved from chaos by the operation of the principles

of *heat and cold*, or *fire and water*, and that man had gradually separated himself from the herd of inferior animals, thus making the operations of the mind material. His moral philosophy taught that the notions of right and wrong are not intrinsic, but conventional.

The great method which distinguished the philosophers of the Ionic school may be termed experimental, from their mode of solving the first problem of philosophy concerning the origin or elementary principle of the world.

PYTHAGORIC, OR ITALIC SCHOOL,

Founded at Croto in Italy, about 527 B.C.

Pythagoras. Pythagoras, the founder of this school, ascribed an occult power to words and numbers, and looked upon the science of arithmetic as containing the essence of all philosophical knowledge. Hence, his school has also been called *the Mathematical*. Numbers were defined by him as the principle of all things; and the ten elementary numbers which contain a complete system of enumeration, contain also the elements of a perfect system of nature. According to the Pythagoreans, the world was an harmonious whole, consisting of ten great bodies revolving around a common centre, in conformity with certain harmonious laws. The centre, or central fire, the sun, was the most perfect object in nature, from which the soul, also a *number*, emanates, resembling it by its immortality and its constant activity, capable of combining with any body, and passing successively through several. This metempsychosis appears to have been connected in Plato's mind with moral retribution. In this system the stars were, of course, divinities, and man, with even the inferior animals, participated in the divine nature. Between gods and men the Pythagoreans supposed an intermediate race of *demons*, to whose agency were ascribed, in a great measure, dreams and portents, the subjects of divination. To the same school are due the first attempts at analysis of the operations and faculties of the mind. The understanding and intellectual faculties they placed in the brain, the will and the appetite in the heart. They were, perhaps, the first also who ennobled the idea of Deity by the attribution of moral qualities, such as truth and beneficence. The society of Pythagoreans established in Italy contemplated the political as well as the moral improvement of society, in consequence of which, the fraternity was suppressed, or rather dispersed, in something less than thirty years, about 510 B.C.

ELEATIC SCHOOL.

The fundamental doctrine of this school was the rejection of experience, and the deriving of all knowledge from the mind itself as the only foundation of truth.

Xenophanes. Xenophanes, of Colophon, the contemporary of Pythagoras, established himself and his school at Elia or Velia, in Magna Grecia. Adhering to the old doctrine, that nothing proceeds from nothing, he argued that nothing could pass from non-existence into existence. Hence, whatever exists must have ever existed, and be immutable. God is one and unalterable, neither finite nor infinite, neither moveable nor immoveable; he is all hearing, all thought, all

sight, and his form is spherical. Xenophanes was the first one who divested the Deity of the gross images under which he had before been represented.

Parmenides. Parmenides of Elia, about 460 B.C., taught a modification of the same doctrine, maintaining that the understanding alone was capable of contemplating truth, while the senses afforded but a deceptive appearance of it.

Melissus. Melissus, of Samos, about 444 B.C., was the boldest, and, perhaps, the ablest master of this school, with the exception of Zeno. He carried his idealism so far as to deny that our senses present us any thing more than appearances, which are altogether beyond the limits of real knowledge.

Zeno. Zeno, of Elia, the disciple of Parmenides, 460 B.C., may be considered as the great master, if not the founder of this school.

ATOMIC SCHOOL.

Leucippus. Leucippus, an Ionian, probably of Miletus, who flourished about 500 B.C., originated the Atomic theory. This theory was carried out by his great disciple Democritus.

Democritus. He maintained the impossibility of infinite division, supposing the atoms originally similar, to be endowed with certain properties, such as impenetrability and density, proportioned to their volume. He referred every active and passive affection to motion caused by impact, limited by the principle that only like can act on like. From the endless multiplicity of atoms have resulted the worlds of the universe. The soul, in his doctrine, consists of globular atoms of fire, which impart movement to the body. Maintaining throughout his atomic theory, Democritus introduced the hypothesis of images,—a species of emanation from external objects, which make an impression on our senses, and from the influence of which he reduced sensation and thoughts. He is vulgarly called *the laughing philosopher*.

HERACLITUS AND EMPEDOCLES.

These philosophers, though flourishing in the first period, can hardly be referred to any of the above schools of philosophy. By birth, however, the former, being an Ephesian, belonged to the Ionian. The results of his reflections were given in a volume, which, on account of its obscurity, obtained for him the name of the *Dark*. With him fire was the foundation of all things, and the universal agent. He maintained the universe to be neither the work of gods nor men, but a living fire, with alternations of decay and resuscitation. The soul, by its consanguinity to the Divine mind, according to him, is capable, *by abstraction*, of recognizing the universal and the true; whereas, by the exercise of the organs of the senses, it perceiveth only what is individual and variable. He is vulgarly called *the crying philosopher*.

Empedocles. Empedocles, of Agrigentum, about 441 B.C., or perhaps earlier, has been called both the disciple of Pythagoras and Parmenides. He defined the soul to consist in a combination of the four elements, which thus, by the analogy subsisting between the *subject* and the *object*, possessed itself of a knowledge of external things.

SOPHISTS.

These were a class of men who may rather be considered as Dialecticians and Rhetoricians than philosophers. Their aim was to distinguish themselves by a show of universal knowledge, by solving the most intricate, fanciful, and useless questions; and by pretended instruction in the art of persuasion, they sought to amass inordinate fortunes. With this view they had contrived certain logical tricks to perplex their antagonists; and without possessing in the least degree the spirit of philosophy, they maintained all sorts of philosophical theories.

Gorgias. Thus the celebrated orator Gorgias, of Leontium, a disciple of Empedocles, 440 B.C., endeavoured to demonstrate that *nothing really exists*.

Protagoras. Protagoras, of Abdera, maintained that *every way of considering a subject has its opposite, and that there is as much truth on one side as the other*. He was banished from Athens for atheism, and died 408 B.C. The other most celebrated sophists of this period were Prodicus of Ceos, Diagoras of Melos, and Critias of Athens, the enemy of Socrates.

SECOND PERIOD.

Socrates. Socrates, the founder of a new era, though not of a particular school in philosophy, was born at Athens, 470 B.C., and was the son of a sculptor named Sophroniscus, and of Phaenareta a midwife. Rejecting, in a great measure, the physical speculations of the former period, he sought, as the principal object of his philosophy, the attainment of correct and popular ideas concerning moral and religious obligation; concerning the end of man's being, and the perfection of his nature. The enmity which he brought upon himself by his ridicule of mysticism and philosophical charlatanism, at last occasioned his death by the judgment of the *five hundred*, 400 B.C.

The PARTIAL SCHOOLS among the Socratics were those of the

CYNICS,

Established by Antisthenes the Athenian, and of which the principal disciple was Diogenes of Sinope. The

CYRENAICS,

Aristippus. By Aristippus of Cyrene, who made the *summum bonum* to consist in *enjoyment—good taste and freedom of mind*.

Aristippus. Aristippus, his grandson, was the first to develop on these principles the complete system of self-indulgence.

Theodorus. Theodorus of Cyrene, taking, like his predecessor, *sensation* for the basis of his doctrine, ended by denying the existence of all objects of perception, and thus opened a way for the sceptic school, framing a system of *indifferentism*, which excluded all difference of right or wrong in morals and in religion, and assuming *pleasure* as the final end of existence. This branch of the Cyrenaic school was called the Theodorian.

THE SCEPTICS

Pyrrho.
A.M. 366.
B.C. 340. Arose in part out of the Cyrenaic.—Their master was Pyrrho of Elis, 340 B.C. His most illustrious disciple was Timon of Phlius, about 272 B.C. He maintained that the doctrine of the Dogmatics was founded on mere hypothesis—that the objects of their speculations do not come within the reach of certain knowledge—that all science is to be accounted vain as not contributing to happiness.

THE MEGARIC,

Founded by Euclid of Megara, 400 B.C., whose principal object was the cultivation of DIALECTICS, on the principles of Socrates and the Eleatics. The other philosophers of this school were Philo, and others of not much note, with Stilpo, who derives his principal reputation from his dogma, made afterwards so important by his disciple Zeno, viz. that wisdom consists in *apathy*.

A.M. 370.
B.C. 300. The schools of ELIS and ERETRIA were founded by Phædo and Menedemus, and their doctrines were those of the school of Megara.

Greater systems proceeding from the Socratics.

The school of the ACADEMY, founded by Plato on the systems of the Rationalists, and another by Aristotle on those of the Empirics. The former arguing from the phenomena of the mind or world within, the latter from those of the world without. From the CYNIC school sprung the STOICS, and from the CYRENAICS the EPICUREANS, the opposition to which produced the SCEPTICISM of the latter Academy.

PLATO

A.M. 357.
B.C. 430. Was born at Athens, 430 B.C., of the family of Codrus and Solon. He was the founder of the ACADEMY, the most famous school of Greek philosophy, and died 348 B.C. He held the doctrine of the existence in the soul of certain innate ideas, which form the basis of our conceptions, and the elegance of our practical resolutions. To Plato is due the first attempt at the construction of a philosophical language, and the division of philosophy into LOGIC, (Dialectics,) METAPHYSICS, (Physiology or Physics,) and MORALS. Plato defined virtue to be the imitation of God, or the effort of man to attain to a resemblance of his original. VIRTUE is *one*, but compounded of four elements—*wisdom, constancy, temperance and justice*. BEAUTY he considered to be the sensible representation of moral and physical perfection, consequently, it is one with truth and goodness, and inspires love, which leads to virtue. The principal disciples of Plato were Speusippus, his nephew and successor, died 339 B.C. Xenocrates of Chalcædon, who taught the doctrines of Plato in the language of the Pythagoreans, and who died 314 B.C., and Crantor of Soloe, who adhered most nearly to the doctrines of his master. To these must be added the celebrated master of the New Academy—

ARISTOTLE

A.M. 362.
B.C. 384. Was born at Stagira, 384 B.C. In 343 having been the disciple of Plato, he became the preceptor of Alexander, and in

A.M. 3670. 334 he founded a new school in the walks of the Lyceum,
 B.C. 334. whence his school was called *Peripatetic*. He died in
 A.M. 3682. 322, at Chalcis in Eubœa, having, as it is supposed, swal-
 B.C. 322. lowed poison on being obliged to leave Athens under suspicion
 of atheism. He rejected the doctrine of ideas, maintaining that all our
 impressions and thoughts, and even the highest efforts of understand-
 ing, are the fruit of experience. Instead of following his master in
 reasoning from the *universal* to the *particular*, he always infers the
 former from the latter. Aristotle comprised within the limits of phi-
 losophy all the sciences, rational, empirical, or mixed, with the excep-
 tion of history, and divided it as a whole into logic, physics and ethics,
 or into *speculative* and *practical*. Speculative philosophy is divided
 into physics, cosmology, psychology and theology. Practical philoso-
 phy comprehends ethics, politics and economy. The most distinguish-
 ed of the immediate followers of Aristotle were Theophrastus, his fa-
 vourite disciple, Eudemus of Rhodes, Dicaearchus, Strato
 A.M. 3684. of Lampsacus, and Demetrius Phalerius.
 B.C. 320.

EPICURUS,

A.M. 3667. Born near Athens, 337 B.C. According to him, philosophy
 B.C. 337. directs us to happiness by means of reason, consequently,
 ethics form a principal part of his system, while physics are secondary,
 and dialectics hold the lowest place. He regarded the *summum bonum*
 to be a state exempt from suffering, the satisfaction of all our ne-
 cessary and natural desires. The pleasure and pains of the mind ex-
 ceed those of the body. To attain happiness, therefore, it is necessary
 to make a choice, and to rule our desires by help of reason and free-
 will; consequently, *prudence*, is the first of virtues, and next, *modera-
 tion* and *justice*. *Virtue* having no value but for the conse-
 quences which attend her, viz. her inseparable alliance with enjoy-
 ment. His physical system was founded on the Atomic school of De-
 mocritus, whence, in his theology, he was reproached with atheism,
 though he himself avowed the contrary.

ZENO AND THE STOICS.

A.M. 3664. Zeno was born about 340 B.C., at Cittium in Cyprus, and
 B.C. 340. after having attended the various Socratic schools, became
 himself the founder of a new one in the Porch (Stoa) at Athens, oppos-
 ed particularly to the doctrines of the Sceptics and the Epicureans,
 and which became memorable for its rigid principles of morality, for
 the influence it possessed in the world, and for its resistance to vice and
 tyranny. According to the Stoics, (so called from *Stoa*,) *philosophy*
is the science of human perfection, which develops itself in THOUGHT,
 KNOWLEDGE and ACTION. Its three subdivisions are LOGIC, PHI-
 LOSOPHY, and ETHICS, the latter being the most important. In the
 establishment of these principles, the Stoics followed the system of em-
 piricism. The logic of the Stoics was of wider application than that
 of Aristotle, comprehending GRAMMAR, RHETORIC, and even PSYCHO-
 LOGY. Their physiology was founded in a measure upon that of He-
 raclitus, and Chrysippus. One of the most illustrious disciples of the
 school, deduced from the application of this theory to theology a sys-

tem of OPTIMISM, and an attempt to explain the Mythological Polytheism. The soul was with them a portion of the soul of the world, but corporeal and perishable: and Cleanthes and Panetius went so far as to endeavour to establish its mortality by proof. The grand formulæ of the Stoics was *to live conformably to the law of right reason*, or, *to live conformably to nature*. Their morality was built upon the fundamental attributes of *order, legality and reason*—as the only means by which man can attain to the end of his being—VIRTUE. Their fundamental practical principles were—that *virtue is the only absolute good; vice the only positive evil; that virtue is founded on prudence, while vice is an inconsistent mode of action, resulting from the neglect or the perversion of reason, accompanied by evil passions, which are voluntary and blameable; that virtue is one and vice is one, neither of them being capable of augmentation or diminution; the former being manifested under four principal characters, prudence, constancy, temperance and justice, with a corresponding number of vices. That the virtuous man is exempt from passions, though not insensible to them, and that these ought to be not moderated but eradicated.*

As a consequence of the unity of virtue and vice, the Stoics could admit of but two descriptions of men, viz. the *good* and the *bad*. From the doctrine of absolute liberty they were obliged to *acknowledge man's right, as a part of his absolute freedom, to deprive himself of life.*

A.M. 3742. Zeno died about 262 B.C., having taught in public nearly
B.C. 262. forty years. The various successive masters of the school

A.M. 3740. were Cleanthes of Assos, about 264 B.C., his disciple Chry-
B.C. 264. sippus of Soloe, called THE PILLAR OF THE PORCH, who died about 210 B.C., Zeno of Tarsus, Diogenes of Babylon, and

A.M. 3894. Panetius of Rhodes, the friend and companion of Scipio
B.C. 210. Africanus.

THE NEW ACADEMY.

The founder of this school of *Doubters* was Arcesilaus of Pitane in Eolia, born 316 B.C. His school, which was generally known as the *New Academy*, was sometimes called the *Middle*. It was founded principally in opposition to Crantor and Zeno. The most illustrious master of this school, who has been considered by some the founder of a third academy, was Carneades of Cyrene, born about
A.M. 3789.
B.C. 215. 215 B.C. His system was one of *Probabilities*, maintaining that all that can be inferred is probability in three degrees. He attacked the theology of the Stoics, and proved that we cannot apply to the Divinity our ideas of existence and morality, exposing the fallacies attending the practice of attributing to the Deity a human form.

Philo of Larissa, and Antiochus of Ascalon, who died 69
A.M. 3935.
B.C. 69. B.C., in some degree endeavoured to reconcile the two opposing systems of dogmatism and scepticism. The former has been considered as the founder of a fourth academy, and the latter, who derived from conscience an argument against scepticism, of a fifth.

Greek Races.

The earliest populations of Greece were of Pelasgic origin, who, long before the period of authentic history, had established the civilization of communities in various parts of the northern and southern divisions of that country. They were an agricultural people, and were the true founders of society in Greece. At a date still anterior to the commencement of history, the more barbarous tribes of the same origin, who had become distinguished, however, by another name, (Hellenes) dispossessed the Pelasgi, expelling numbers, who then assumed the wandering character by which they were subsequently known, and reducing the rest to various grades of servitude. For a long time the agricultural character, and all the habits of the early civilization, were identified with this degraded caste, and the occupations of war were the sole exercise of the *heroic* Hellenes. With this begins the *Heroic or Epic period of Greece*.

The affinity of all the tribes of this common race was represented after the symbolical fashion of the Greeks, by a traditionary descent from a common ancestor, (Hellen,) whose name was obviously derived in after times from that of the race whose origin it was intended symbolically to represent.

The Hellenic race, which may be traced originally from Thessaly, was spread at the commencement of the period of authentic history over the greater part of Greece, although its various inhabitants were not designated collectively by the name of Hellenes till a much later era.

The symbolical representation of the whole race as descended from one man, (Hellen,) was carried out in the deduction of the various subdivisions or secondary races. Thus the Æolians were all traced in the genealogical tradition to Æolus, the son of Hellen, and the Dorians to another son, Dorus, while the Ionians, who certainly entered the Hellenic system later, and whose Pelasgic origin was acknowledged in the time of Herodotus, were deduced from Ion, the son of Xuthus, and *grandson* of Hellen.

Before the great revolution attending the Doric conquest of the Peloponnesus, these races were distributed generally over the country thus—

The ÆOLIANS possessed so much of Thessaly as was *Hellenic*, *Bæotia*, *Acarnania*, *Phocis*, *Locris*, and the *Peloponnesus*, with the exception of that portion which was subsequently called *Achaia*.

The DORIANS occupied, as their proper country, a small region between *Locris*, *Ætolia* and *Thessaly*, separated from the latter by the range of *Mount Ceta*.

The IONIANS were limited to *Attica*, *Megaris*, and the northern coast of the Peloponnesus.

About 80 years after the Trojan war, began the revolution alluded to above, and which lasting upwards of 150 years, resulted in changing entirely the settlements of the different races. The Dorians, assisted by the Ætolians, expelled or subdued the Æolic populations of the Peloponnesus, extending their conquests over the adjacent islands and

the neighbouring Megaris. They had before established in their progress new and powerful settlements in Bœotia, Locris and Eubœa.

The Æolians, thus driven from their seats, became in their turn aggressors, and expelling the Ionians from the northern coast of the Peloponnesus, (called until that time Ægialus,) took up their permanent abode in that region, which assumed from them, and ever after retained, the name of Achaia.

The important changes effected by the extensive movements of the Doric people are identified in the poetic legends with the story of the Heraclidae, their expulsion from the Peloponnesus by Eurystheus, their reception by Ægimius, king of the Dorians, their return to the Peloponnesus with the Dorians as allies, and their expulsion of the Pelopidae.

GRECIAN SETTLEMENTS IN ASIA.

Like all the incidents connected with the early civilization of the Greeks, the Hellenic settlements in Asia Minor received a poetical and semi-mythological colouring. They were connected with the traditions of the Heraclidae, and interwoven with them into one systematic narration. The flight of the Ionians from Ægialus, (Achaia,) and their reception by their brothers of Attica, occasioned naturally an increase of population in that state beyond the means of support; and this increase, occurring at a moment of political excitement arising out of the decline of the kingly office, rendered a migration at once necessary to the mass of the people, and acceptable to the malcontents. Headed by Penthilus, a large body of Ionians, crossing over into Asia, established themselves on the coast of Mysia, in that part which their frequent piratical expeditions, and their long wars, represented poetically in the legend of the Siege of Troy, had made known to the Greeks. These Ionians, however, did not compose the mass of the migrating body, for the Æolians, following the fortunes of their prince in greater numbers, attached themselves to the expedition. This is called the *ÆOLIC MIGRATION*, and the portion of Asia Minor thus occupied assumed the name of *ÆOLIA*. In this legend the influence of the Æolian prince Penthilus represents probably nothing else than the predominance of the Æolic race in the establishment of the colony.

About sixty years afterward, the same causes still operating to produce an unnatural increase of population in Attica, and the final abolition of the kingly office, induced a second migration. This was headed by Nileus, the son of Codrus. He conducted large numbers, whom want, or dissatisfaction at the political changes rendered willing to undergo the dangers and difficulties of migration. The example of the Æolians naturally directed them to the opposite coast of Asia, and crossing the Ægean, they established themselves south of Æolia, along the coasts of Lydia and a part of Caria. From them this region was called *Ionian*.

The success of the Dorians in the Peloponnesus had the effect of putting into motion large bodies of that race from their original seats, at first, and afterwards from the Peloponnesus itself, where they found

the most advantageous places pre-occupied by others of their own race. It was not until many attempts had been made inefficaciously, that they succeeded in reducing Megaris; and to their ill success in their first efforts directed to this end, has been ascribed the Doric migration to Asia. It is natural to suppose, however, that without this incentive, the example of the Æolians and Ionians, and the inducements of an easy conquest and a fertile country, would have allured thither a people so restless as the Dorians. The only portion of the western coast of Asia Minor which remained unoccupied, was that which extended south from Ionia in Caria, to the borders of Lycia. Here then, the Dorians established themselves, imparting their name to the country; and thus terminated the line of Greek colonies in Asia, from the Hellespont to the Mediterranean. This last migration was either attended or followed by the subjugation of the intervening islands, that is to say, Cythera, Thera, Crete, Rhodes, &c.

HELLENIC COLONIES IN ITALY;

The name of Magna Grecia applied to that part of Italy in which these settlements were effected is testimony of their number and importance, yet no accurate and systematic account of their origin, deduced from any early authority, has come down to our time. Sybaris, Crotona, Metapontum, and Caulon, were among the earliest and most celebrated of these colonies. They were founded about 720 B.C., by the Achæians, who were soon followed by a Doric colony which settled at Tarentum. Locri and Rhegium were founded about the same time, most probably by Achæians, that is to say, Locri by the Opuntii, and Rhegium by the Messenians and Zancleans. It was not until a later period that the Ionians established the colonies of Siris and Scyllatium.

Heraclea, the seat of the general council of the Greek states, was a Doric colony, founded by the Tarentines after the destruction of Siris, 428 B.C. To these colonies must be added the important towns of Velia and Thurii; the former founded by the Ionians of Phocæa, and the latter by Attics (Ionians) in the time, and at the suggestion of Pericles.

But far before all these were the Doric colonies in Sicily. The first and greatest of them was Syracuse, founded by one of the Heraclidæ from Corinth, famous in her history, and powerful as the mother city of Agrigentum, Camarina, &c.

The Dorians, besides their settlements in Europe and Asia, had established a flourishing colony in Africa, by the 600th year B.C. It was called Cyrene, and very soon became strong enough to contend with the kingdoms of Egypt and Lybia.

E R R A T A .

In LECTURE I. page 8, line 21 from top, for 3150 read 3250.

“ “ page 9, line 16 from bottom, for 2383 read 3283.

“ “ II. page 21, line 9 from bottom, for 2573 read 3573.

“ “ II. page 26, line 15 from top, for *Sparta* read *ATHENS*.

In the Introduction to Ancient Geography. p. 3, line 8 from top, for Pelopennesus read Peloponnesus.

“ “ “ “ same page, line 3 from bottom, for *Selencidæ* read *Seleucidæ*.

“ “ “ “ same page, bottom line, for *Saleucia* read *Seleucia*.

“ “ “ “ page 5, lines 18 and 20 from top, for *Eubea* read *EUBOEÆ*.

In the Hebrew History, page 29, line 4 from top, for 2430 read 2433.

In the History of Egypt, page 79, line 11 from top, for *Alexander* read *AUGUSTUS*.

In the heading of the Chronological Index, p. 86, for—A. M. 3750 to 4554, read 3250 to 4004.

In the Roman History, page 107, lines 2 and 4 from bottom, for *Maximus* read *MAXIMINUS*.

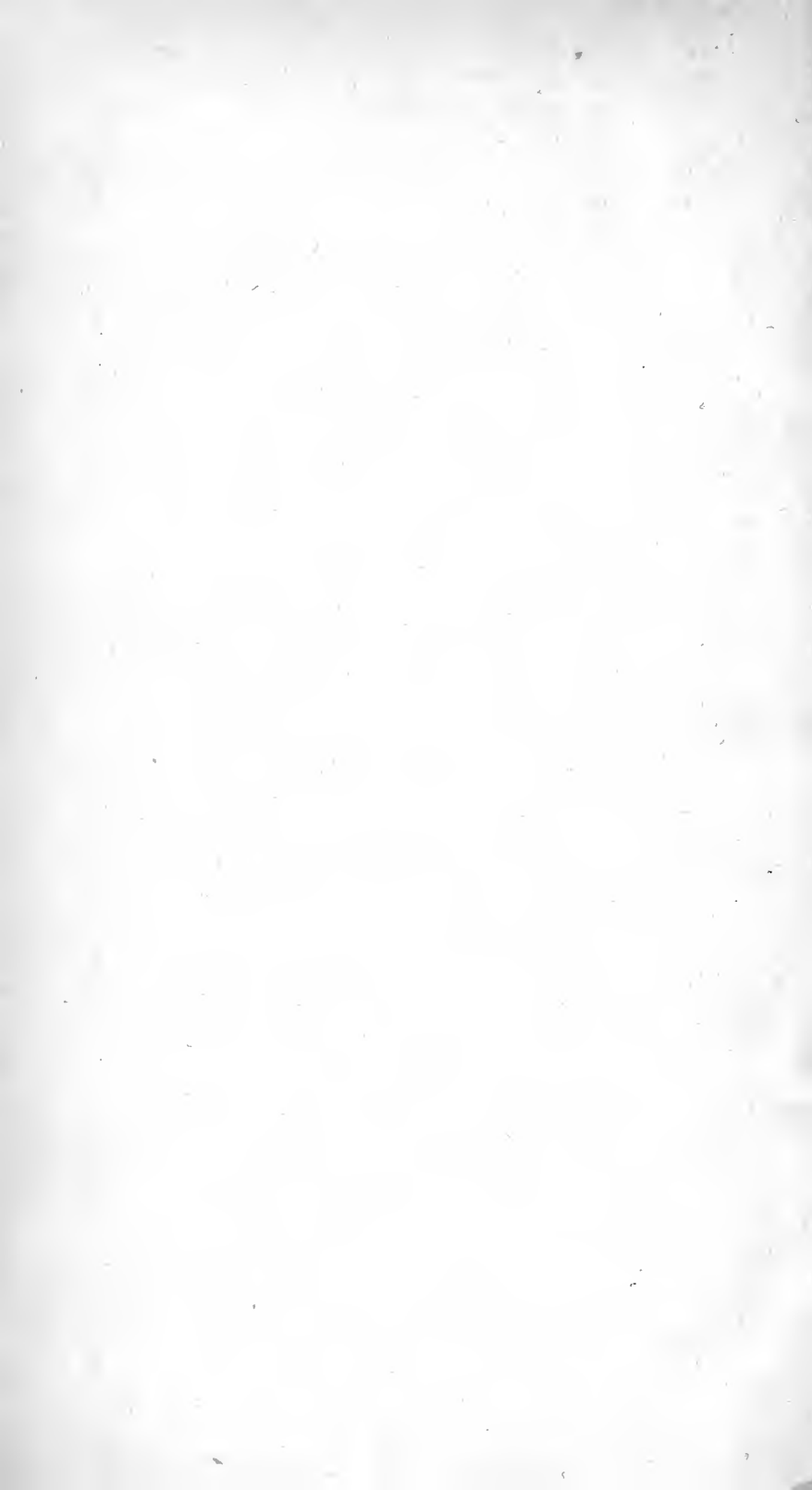
“ “ “ page 108, line 17 from top, *Velerian* should be *Valerian*.

In the Table of the Kings of France, page 135, line 11 from bottom, Philip 1st. 1068, should be 1060.

“ “ “ “ page 136, line 11 from top, in the heading, 191 years should be 91 years.

“ “ “ “ same page, before Louis XIV. should be inserted A.D. 1700.

✂ There may be a few others, which it was impossible to avoid in a first edition.





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